OUTLINES OF HISTORY;

WITH ORIGINAL TABLES,

CHRONOLOGICAL, GENEALOGICAL AND LITERARY.

BY

ROBERT H. LABBERTON.

Second Edition.

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PREFACE.

EVERY teacher has experienced a difficulty in dealing with the subject of History, and is compelled to acknowledge with regret that most pupils leave school, and even college, possessed of only very hazy, uncertain, and therefore totally valueless views regarding the simplest historical subject.

Yet this failure seems unavoidable when we consider how history is generally taught. Some pupils are hurried through a number of text-books, overloaded with details, all of which they are expected to master, and some of which, strange to say, a few highly favored memories succeed in retaining until examination is over. Others are taught from one book only; that is, they are made to depend for their views of the most important events on the mere *ipse dixit* of one man. Granting even that he is a perfectly competent guide, the writer exercises too much power over both teacher and pupil, and often succeeds in making them lazy, ignorant and self-sufficient. By pretending to tell everything necessary to be known, he eradicates all taste for independent investigation. Once through his book, the pupil shuts it up for ever, and thinks he *knows history.*

Besides, a universal (*school*) history can hardly help splitting on one of two rocks — tiresome dryness, if the subject is handled with the aim to give full information, or too great diffuseness, if the object is to make it light and interesting.

From no *one book* can any one be taught history. But suppose a book prepared on a strictly scientific basis, where history, while breaking itself up and separating into distinct periods, each with its LEADING EVENTS, its PECULIAR CHARACTER, and its REPRESENTATIVE MEN, continually preserves that unity which impresses itself on the attention, and presents the vicissitudes of centuries as A VAST, CONTINUOUS, HARMONIOUS WHOLE; suppose it to be not so much exhaustive as suggestive, and offering throughout the means of satisfying the excited curiosity by referring to accessible, readable and trustworthy authorities; — by such a book may not pupils be so trained in history as to find that their intelligence has been really strengthened and expanded?

Such a book, it seems to me, my friend has tried to write. It is essentially a SCHOOL-BOOK for the benefit of both teacher and pupil.

Its chief and distinctive features are:

1. The Table of Contents, so arranged as to impress firmly the grand outlines of history on the imagination and memory.

2. The Chronological Table of only 420 dates, exhibiting the representative men of all ages *at that particular period of their lives in which their influence, for good or evil, was at its height.*

Both these (the first part of the Table of Contents and the Chrono-

logical Table) are intended to be thoroughly committed to memory; a task easily regulated, as the difficulty depends entirely on the time that the pupil can devote to his historical studies.

This Chronological Table is the grand pivot on which the other parts of the book turn; as they were all written solely to vivify, illustrate and explain it.

The plan to be pursued is, therefore, obvious. The pupil is to get by heart, each day, a certain number of dates, generally the fewer the better, and to look out all information regarding them to be found in the Dictionary and Appendix. This, though an easy task, owing to the perfect order of arrangement, has the great advantage of giving him something solid to do in preparation of his lesson, besides merely exercising his memory. This will lead by degrees to a habit of inquiry, the means of satisfying which are amply provided in the lists of books accompanying every period.

It is evident that by means of the different parts of this work, the teacher can ask and the pupil can answer, without reference to any other book, thousands of important questions in history; and that the labor done by the pupil, calling as it does his judgment as well as his memory into play, cannot fail to turn the school study of history into a pleasing and profitable pursuit, instead of an unwelcome and irksome task.

Other merits of the book might be pointed out; but the intelligent teacher will discover them for himself.

In conclusion: The author deserves the gratitude of teachers, for he has furnished us a most efficient help in, perhaps, the most difficult department of our labors. May our pupils have the full benefit of it; and when passing from under our care, may they carry with them a taste in literature for something higher than the universal light-reading of the day, — the healthful, bracing, and elevating truths of history; that as men and citizens they may be proof against the sophistries of smart magazinists, "brilliant" lecturers, and crafty politicians; and by their knowledge and virtue do their part to refine society, and protect and perpetuate the Republic.

E. R.

PHILADELPHIA. *May*, 1870.

COMPLETE TABLE OF CONTENTS.

FIRST PART—THE TABLES.

These tables contain 420 carefully selected dates, and are arranged as follows:

From 2500 B. C.–1000 B. C. every 250th year.
From 1000 B. C.– 550 B. C. every 50th year.
From 550 B. C.–1300 A. D. every 10th year.
From 1300 A. D.–1490 A. D. every 5th year.
From 1490 A. D.–1850 A. D. every 2d year.

The literary characters are throughout printed in CAPITALS. From 1490 A.D., every tenth name is a literary character. The dates placed after a name (indicating the birth and death) are not intended to be committed to memory, but to be used by the pupils in answering questions, with the tables before them. The name of a town after a date indicates always the foundation, except when followed by a *b*, (*battle.*)

The dates on the first table, are nearly all approximate. The date for the foundation of Rome, however, has the authority of Polybius and even of Cicero, (Rep. II. 10, 18.) The date for Rameses the Great has the authority of Rawlinson, (Herod. II., p. 312.)

SECOND PART.

Alphabetical List containing an Article on each name or fact mentioned in the Chronological Tables, pages 29—168.

THIRD PART.

Appendix, containing: the cause; duration; theatre of war; parties; object of the war; result of the war; commanders; campaigns; decisive battles; cause of peace; condition of peace, etc., of the principal wars, from the earliest times until 1850 A. D.

SYNOPSIS OF APPENDIX.

III. ROMAN HISTORY.

IV. THE EMPIRE.

MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

A. CHRISTENDOM.

MODERN HISTORY.

FOURTH PART.

Genealogical Tables.

Alphabetical Index to the Sovereign Families of Europe mentioned in these Tables.

Explanations of Signs used in the Genealogical Tables.

=	Married.
|	Child of.
:	Bastard of.
Emp.	Emperor of Germany.
*	King of France.
†	King of Hungary.
‡	Ruler of Bavaria.
§	King of Scotland.
‖	Ruler of Austria.
†	Ruler of Spain.

The number after a name signifies the year of death; all other signs or marks are explained in the Genealogical Tables.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

2500 B.C.–300 A.D.

SMITH: Ancient History.

A

EASTERN HISTORY.

2500–500 B.C.

WILKINSON: Ancient Egypt.
RAWLINSON: Ancient Monarchies.

B. C.	*Chronology.*	*Periods.*
About 2500	The Pyramids	**First.** Chaldæan Ascendency in Western Asia 2200–1500 B. C.
2250	Sesostris	
2000	Abraham	
1750	The Hyksos	
1500	Moses	**Second.** Egyptian Ascendency in Western Asia 1500–1200 B. C.
1250	Rameses the Great	
1000	DAVID and HOMER	**Third.** Assyrian Ascendency in Western Asia 1150–650 B. C.
950	Sardanapalus	
900	Elijah	
850	HESIOD	
800	Carthage	
750	Rome	
700	ISAIAH	
650	Tullus Hostilius	
600	Nebuchadnezzar	**Fourth.** The four great powers Babylon, Media, Lydia, Egypt 625–555 B. C.
550	Cyrus	**Fifth.** Persian Ascendency in Western Asia 555–333 B. C.

Greece		Mythical Period	The settlement of the Hellenes around and beyond the Archipelago
Rome			Regal Rome

ANCIENT HISTORY.

2500 B.C.–300 A.D.

SMITH: Ancient History.

B

GREEK HISTORY.

600–300 B.C

GROTE: History of Greece.
GROTE: Plato and the other Companions of Socrates.
CURTIUS: History of Greece.

I. The Dawn.

B. C.		
540	Pisistratus (612–527 B. C.)	
530	PYTHAGORAS (540–510)	
520	Darius	
510	Brutus R	Expulsion of Hippias
500	Aristagoras	

II. The Glory.

490	Miltiades	Marathon b.
480	PINDAR (518–442)	Thermopylæ and Salamis b.
470	ÆSCHYLUS (525–456)	Themistocles and Aristides
460	SOPHOCLES (495–405)	Pericles and Phidias
450	EURIPIDES (480–406)	Laws of the XII Tables R
440	HERODOTUS (484–408)	Anaxagoras

III. The Decline.

430	THUCYDIDES (471–400)	Peloponnesian War, 2d year
420	XENOPHON (444–355)	Alcibiades
410	ARISTOPHANES (444–380)	Socrates
400	PLATO (428–347)	The Anabasis
390	The Burning of Rome	Thrasybulus
380	ISOCRATES (436–338)	Olynthian War, 3d year
370	Epaminondas (?–362)	Democritus
360	Philip of Macedon (382–336)	Amphipolis b.
350	DEMOSTHENES (385–322)	Praxiteles
340	ARISTOTLE (384–322)	Latin War R

IV. The Fall.

330	Alexander the Great (365–322)	
320	EPICURUS (342–270)	2d Samnite War, 7th year R
310	Agathocles (360–289)	
300	EUCLID	

Rome	Regal Rome	Struggle between the Patricians and Plebeians					The Conquest of Central Italy
Greece	The Pisistratidæ at Athens	Persian Wars	Age of Pericles	Peloponnesian War	Spartan hegemony		Macedonian supremacy

ANCIENT HISTORY.

2500 B.C.–300 A.D.

SMITH: Ancient History.

C

ROMAN HISTORY.

300–30 B.C.

NIEBUHR: History of Rome.
MOMMSEN: History of Rome.
MERIVALE: History of the Romans under the Empire, Vol. I.–III.

B. C.			The Great Wars of Rome: *African*	*Eastern*	*Spanish*	*Ligurian*	*Gallic*	*Civil*
	I. The Heroic Age of Rome.							
290	Venusia	End of the Samnite Wars.						
280	Pyrrhus (318–272) G.	Heracleia, b.						
270	Hiero (308–216) G.							
260	Duilius	First Punic War, 5th year.						
250	Regulus	Arsaces.	I					
240	ERATOSTHENES (274–194) G.	End of the First Punic War.						
230	ARCHIMEDES (287–212) G.							
220	POLYBIUS (204–122) G.	Social War. Gr.						
210	Hannibal (247–183)	Second Punic War, 9th year.	II	I			I	
200	Scipio Major (234–183)	Macedonian War.						
	II. Rome the Umpire of the Nations.							
190	Antiochus the Great (237–187) G.	Magnesia, b.		II			II	
180	PLAUTUS (254–184)			A				
170	CATO MAJOR (234–149)	War with Perseus, 2d year.		III	I	I		
160	TERENCE (194–159)	The Pontine marshes drained.						
150	Scipio Minor (185–129)							
140	Viriathus		III	IV				
130	C. Gracchus							1
120	Æmilius Scaurus							
110	Jugurtha	Jugurthine War, 2d year.	J				C.T	
100	Marius (157–86)							
	III. The Civil Wars.							
90	Mithradates (131–63)	Marsic War.						2, 3
80	Sulla (138–78)	Sertorius.						4
70	Pompey (106–48)	Cicero impeaches Verres.		M	S			
60	Cæsar (100–44)	First triumvirate.					C	5
50	CICERO (106–43)							
40	SALLUST (86–34)	Peace of Brundisium.						6,7,8, 9,10
30	Augustus (63 B.C.–14 A.D.)	Egypt a Roman province.						11

Explanation of the Synchronistical Table of the Great Wars of Rome.

First column. AFRICAN WARS.	*Second column.* EASTERN WARS.	*Third column.* SPANISH WARS.	*Fourth column.* LIGURIAN WARS.	*Fifth column.* GALLIC WARS.	*Sixth column.* CIVIL WARS.
I 1st Punic, 264–241 II 2d Punic, 218–201 III 3d Punic, 150–146 J Jugurthine, 112–106	I 1st Macedonian, 214–204 II 2d Macedonian, 201–197 A Syrian, 192–190 III 3d Macedonian, 171–168 IV Greek Macedonian, 148–146 M The Three Mithradatic Wars: 87–64	I Great Spanish, 200–133 S Sertorian, 80–72	I 193–154	I Cisalpine Gallic, 226–221 II Gallic, 200–182 C.T Cimbric, 113–101 C Cæsar's, 58–51	See Appendix, p. 192.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

2500 B.C.-300 A.D.

SMITH: Ancient History.

D

THE EMPIRE.

MERIVALE: History of the Romans under the Empire, IV.-VII.
GIBBON: History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.

I. The Italian Emperors.
The Golden Age of Literature.

B. C.		
30	Augustus (63 B. C.-14 A. D.)	
20	VIRGIL (70-19 B. C.).	
10	HORACE (65-8 B. C.)	
1	OVID (43 B. C.-18 A. D.)	
A. D.	**The Birth of Christ**	
10	LIVY (59 B. C.-17 A. D.)	
20	STRABO (54 B. C.-24 A. D.)	
30	Tiberius (42 B. C.-37 A. D.)	
40	SENECA (—-65)	Caligula, 4th year
50	PERSIUS (34-62)	Claudius, 10th year
60	THE ELDER PLINY (23-79)	Nero, 7th year
70	Destruction of Jerusalem	Vespasian, 2d year
80	JUVENAL	Titus, 2d year
90	MARTIAL (43-104)	Domitian, 10th year

II. The Western Emperors.
The Golden Age of the Empire.

100	Trajan (52-117)	
110	TACITUS (50-117)	
120	PLUTARCH (46-120)	Hadrian, 4th year
130	SUETONIUS	
140	Antoninus Pius (56-161)	
150	PTOLEMY (139-161)	Polycarp in Rome
160	PAUSANIAS	
170	Marcus Aurelius (121-180)	
180	LUCIAN (120-200)	Commodus, 1st year
190	GALEN (130-200)	
200	DIOGENES LAERTIUS	Septimius Severus, 8th year

III. The Eastern Emperors.
The General Decline.

210	TERTULLIAN (160-240)	Wall in Britain completed
220	Elagabalus (205-222)	
230	Alexander Severus (205-235)	
240	ORIGEN (185-234)	
250	Decian Persecution	
260	LONGINUS (213-273)	
270	Aurelian (213-275)	
280	PORPHYRY (233-305)	Probus, 5th year
290	LACTANTIUS (—-320)	Carausius
300	Diocletian (245-313)	

MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

300-1300 A.D.

GIBBON: Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire from Ch. 14.
MILMAN: History of Latin Christianity.
HALLAM: View of the State of Europe during the Middle Ages.
MICHELET: History of France during the Middle Ages.

A THE TRIUMPH OF CHRISTIANITY.

300–600 A.D.

MERIVALE: Conversion of the Roman Empire.
MERIVALE: Conversion of the Northern Nations.

	Chronology.	*Periods.*
310	EUSEBIUS	
320	Sylvester	
330	Constantine the Great (272–337)	
340	ST. ATHANASIUS (296–373)	First.
350	Shapoor	The Conversion of the Empire.
360	Julian the Apostate (331–363)	310–390 A. D.
370	ST. AMBROSE (340–397)	
380	Theodosius the Great (343–395)	
390	ST. CHRYSOSTOM (347–407)	
400	ST. AUGUSTINE (345–450)	
410	Alaric	Second.
420	ST. JEROME (345–430)	The Foundation of the Latin Church.
430	NESTORIUS	Heathenism buried under the ruins of
440	LEO THE GREAT (390–461)	heathen Rome.
450	Attila	400–460 A. D.
460	Genseric	
470	ULPHILAS	
480	Odoacer (——493)	
490	Theodoric (455–526)	
500	BOETHIUS (470–524)	
510	Clovis (465–511)	
520	ST. BENEDICT (480–542)	Third.
530	Justinian (483–565)	The Conversion of the Barbarians.
540	Belisarius (505–565)	League of Christianity with Barbarism.
550	CASSIODORUS (468–568)	470–600 A. D.
560	GREGORY OF TOURS (544–595)	
570	Alboin	
580	Brunehilda	
590	GREGORY THE GREAT (544–604)	
600	The English Augustine	

MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

300-1300 A. D.

GIBBON: Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, from Ch. 14.
MILMAN: History of Latin Christianity.
HALLAM: View of the State of Europe during the Middle Ages.
MICHELET: History of France during the Middle Ages.

B — THE RISE OF ISLAM.

MUIR: Life of Mohammed.
RODWELL: The Koran.
WEIL: Biblical Legends of the Mussulmans.
FREEMAN: History and Conquests of the Saracens.
G. P. R. JAMES: History of Charlemagne.

A. D.		PERIODS.
610	Heraclius (575–641)	First. Islam victorious.
620	Chosroes (—-628)	
630	Mohammed (570–632)	
640	Amru (600–663)	
650	Abdallah (—-692)	
660	Moawyah	
670	Cairoan	
680	Fall of the Fatimites	
690	Ina (—-728)	
700	THE VENERABLE BEDE (672–735)	
710	Tarik	
720	St. Boniface (680–755)	
730	Charles Martel (694–741)	Second. Islam checked.
740	The Iconoclasts	
750	The Abassides (750–1258)	
760	Bagdad	
770	Abderhaman (731–787)	
780	ALCUIN (725–804)	
790	Haroun al Rashid (765–809)	Third. Consolidation of the West.
800	Charlemagne (742–814)	
810	Venice	
820	EGINHARD (771–840)	
830	RABANUS MAURUS (786–856)	
840	Death of Louis the Pious (778–840)	

MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

300-1300 A. D.

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MILMAN: History of Latin Christianity.
HALLAM: View of the State of Europe during the Middle Ages.
MICHELET: History of France during the Middle Ages.

C THE THREE ATTEMPTS TO UNITE CHRISTENDOM.

PAULI: Life of Alfred the Great.
GURNEY: Pope Gregory VII.
THIERRY: Norman Conquest.
FREEMAN: Norman Conquest.

850	St. Ansgar	First. By the Carlovingians.
860	HINCMAR (806–882)	
870	SCOTUS ERIGENA (—-875)	
880	The Arabs in Sicily	
890	Alfred the Great (849–901)	
900	Theodora	
910	Cluny	
920	Normans in France	Second. By the German Emperors.
930	Henry the Fowler (876–936)	
940	GEBER	
950	LUITPRAND (920–972)	
960	Berengar II. (—-966)	
970	Otto the Great (912–973)	
980	GERBERT (—-1003)	
990	Hugh Capet (939–996)	
1000	FIRDUSI	
1010	AVICENNA (980–1037)	
1020	Canute the Great (995–1035)	
1030	PETER DAMIANI (988–1072)	
1040	Emperor Henry III. (1017–1056)	
1050	BERENGAR OF TOURS (1000–1088)	
1060	The College of Cardinals	Third. By the Papacy.
1070	William the Conqueror (1027–1087)	
1080	Gregory VII. and Henry IV. (1050–1106)	
1090	Peter the Hermit (1050–1115)	

MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

300–1300 A.D.

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MICHELET: History of France during the Middle Ages.

D CHRISTENDOM AGAINST ISLAM.

Age of the Crusades.

MICHAUD: History of the Crusades.
KINGTON: History of Emperor Frederick II.
GUIZOT: Life of St. Louis.

1100	The Kingdom of Jerusalem (1099–1187)	**First Period.** The Real Crusades.
1110	ABELARD and HELOISE (1079–1142)—(1101–1164)	
1120	Abbot Suger (1087–1152)	
1130	ST. BERNARD (1091–1153)	
1140	Arnold of Brescia (— –1155)	
1150	Louis VII. and Henry Plantagenet (1120–1180)—(1133–1189)	
1160	Barbarossa and Alexander II. (1121–1190)—(— –1181)	**Second Period.** Barbarossa.
1170	Assassination of Becket (1119–1170)	
1180	Henry the Lion (1129–1195)	
1190	Teutonic Knights	
1200	THE POEM OF THE CID	**Third Period.** Glory and Fall of the Papacy.
1210	Innocent III. (1161–1216)	
1220	Dschingis-Khan	
1230	Frederick II. and Gregory IX. (1194–1250)—(— –1241)	
1240	Petrus de Vinea (— –1277)	
1250	The Pastoureaux	
1260	Manfred (1233–1266)	
1270	Death of St. Louis (1215–1270)	
1280	Alfonso the Wise (1203–1284)	
1290	The Scottish Succession	

BOTTA: Dante.
LONGMAN: Lectures on E. H. The greatest of the Plantagenets.
MICHELET: Hist. of France, Book V.

CAMPBELL: Life of Petrarch.
LONGMAN: Life and Times of Edward III.
BROUGHAM: England and France under the House of Lancaster.
MICHELET: History of France, Book VI.–XII.

EDGAR: War of the Roses.
KIRK: Charles the Bold.
MICHELET: History of France, Book XIII.–XVII.

MODERN HISTORY: 1300–1850.

MILMAN: *History of Latin Christianity, Book XII., XIII., XIV.*
GIBBON: *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire, Ch. 62–71.*
DYER: *Modern Europe.*

THE FORMATION OF DISTINCT NATIONALITIES.

1300–1490.

I. During the Anglo-Scotch Struggle.

1300 DANTE (1265–1321)
1305 Wallace (1270–1305)
1310 End of the Templars
1315 The Bruce (1274–1329)
1320 ABULFEDA (1273–1331)
1325 Giotto (1276–1336)

II. During the Anglo-French Struggle.

1330 The Valois in France
1335 MANDEVILLE (1300–1372)
1340 PETRARCA (1304–1374.)
1345 Edward III (1312–1377)
1350 BOCCACCIO (1313–1375)
1355 The Black Prince (1330–1376)
1360 FROISSART (1337–1410)
1365 Peter the Cruel (1319–1369)
1370 WYCLIFFE (1324–1384)
1375 Return of the Popes to Rome
1380 GOWER (1320–1402)
1385 Tamerlane (1336–1405)
1390 CHAUCER (1328–1400)
1395 Bajazet (1347–1403)
1400 Murder of Richard II (1366–1400)
1405 THOMAS À KEMPIS (1380–1471)
1410 John Huss (1376–1415)
1415 Azincourt b.
1420 Treaty of Troyes
1425 CHARLES OF ORLEANS
1430 Joan of Arc (1412–1431)
1435 Treaty of Arras
1440 MONSTRELET (1390–1453)

III. During the War of the Roses.

1445 Beaufort and Gloucester
1450 Jack Cade
1455 Ottoman Empire in Europe
1460 Wakefield b.
1465 COMINES (1445–1509)
1470 Warwick the King-maker (1420–1471)
1475 Charles the Bold (1433–1477)
1480 CAXTON (1412–1491)
1485 Bosworth Field b.
1490 MACCHIAVELLI (1469–1527)

A

The Empire	Albert I	H. VII	Louis IV	Charles IV	*s.* Wenceslaus	Rupert	Sigismund br. to Wenceslaus	A. II	*2 c.* Frederick III
England	Edwd I	*s.* Edward II	*s.* Edward III	*gs.* Richard II	*1 c.* Henry IV	*s.* Hen V	*s.* Henry VI	*3 c.* Edward IV	Hen VII
France	Philip IV	*s.* Ls. X Ph. V Chs. IV	*1 c.* Philip VI	*s.* John	*s.* Charles V	*s.* Charles VI	*s.* Charles VII	*s.* Louis XI	*s* Chs. VIII
Spain									Ferdinand and Isabella
Turkey	Othman	*s.* Orchan	*s.* Amurath I	*s.* Bajazet I	*s.* Soliman I	*b.* Mahomet I	*s.* Amurath II	*s.* Mahomet II	*s.* Bajazet II
Russia									
Prussia									

MODERN HISTORY.

1300–1850.

DYER: Modern Europe.

B

THE AGE OF THE GREAT DISCOVERIES.

1490–1530.

MAJOR: The Life of Prince Henry of Portugal.
IRVING: Life and Voyages of Columbus.
IRVING: Voyages and Discoveries of the Companions of Columbus.
PRESCOTT: Ferdinand and Isabella.

RANKE: History of the Reformation.
D'AUBIGNÉ: History of the Reformation.
PRESCOTT: Conquest of Mexico.
PRESCOTT: Conquest of Peru.

I. Before the Great Schism.

1490 MACCHIAVELLI (1469–1527)
1492 Columbus (1436–1506)
1494 Louis Sforza (—–1510)
1496 Savonarola (1452–1498)
1498 Vasco de Gama (1469–1525)
1500 ERASMUS (1467–1536)
1502 Leonardo da Vinci (1452–1519)
1504 Nuñez de Balboa (1475–1517)
1506 Michael Angelo (1474–1564)
1508 Albuquerque (1453–1515)
1510 ARIOSTO (1474–1533)
1512 Gaston de Foix (1489–1512)
1514 Wolsey (1471–1530)
1516 Dürer (1471–1528)
1518 Cortez (1485–1554)

II. During the Reformation.

1520 LUTHER (1483–1546)
1522 Magellan (1470–1524)
1524 The House of Wasa in Sweden
1526 Battle of the Mohacz
1528 Pizarro (1475–1541)
1530 COPERNICUS (1473–1543)

The Empire	Frederick III	*s.* Maximilian I	*gs.* Charles V	
England	Henry VII	*s.* Henry VIII		
France	Charles VIII	*3 c.* Louis XII	*2 c.* Francis I	
Spain	Ferdinand and Isabella	Ferdinand	*gs.* Charles I	
Turkey	Bajazet II	*s.* Selim I	*s.* Soliman II	
Russia				
Prussia				

MODERN HISTORY.

1300–1850.

DYER: Modern Europe.

THE RELIGIOUS WARS.

1530–1660.

FROUDE: History of England.
ROBERTSON: History of Charles V.

PRESCOTT: Philip II.
MOTLEY: Rise of the Dutch Republic.
MOTLEY: History of the United Netherlands.

I. During the Struggle between the Creeds in Germany and England.

1532 Sir Thomas More (1480–1535)
1534 Act of Supremacy
1536 Anne Boleyn (1507–1536)
1538 Cranmer (1489–1556)
1540 RABELAIS (1495–1553)
1542 Solway Moss, b.
1544 Loyola (1491–1556)
1546 Smalcaldian War
1548 Maurice of Saxony (1521–1553)
1550 CAMOENS (1524–1579)
1552 Peace of Passau
1554 Jane Grey (1537–1554)
1556 Abdication of Charles V (1500–1558)
1558 Reconquest of Calais
1560 MONTAIGNE (1533–1592)

II. During the Struggle between the Creeds in France and Holland.

1562 Massacre of Vassy
1564 Death of Calvin (1509–1564)
1566 The Iconoclasts
1568 Alba (1508–1582)
1570 CERVANTES (1547–1616)
1572 St. Bartholomew
1574 Siege of Leyden
1576 Pacification of Ghent
1578 Drake (1545–1596)
1580 TASSO (1544–1595)
1582 Gregorian Style
1584 William the Silent (1533–1584)
1586 Mary Stuart (1542–1587)
1588 Spanish Armada
1590 SPENSER (1553–1599)
1592 Death of Parma (1546–1592)
1594 The Bourbons in France (1589–1830)
1596 Sir Robert Cecil (1550–1612)
1598 Edict of Nantes

C

The Empire	Charles V	*b.* Ferdinand I	*s.* Maximilian II	*s.* Rudolph II
England	Henry VIII	*s.* Edward VI	*sist.* Mary	*sist.* Elizabeth
France	Francis I	*s.* Henry II	*s.* F. II	*b.* Charles IX / *b.* Henry III / *10 c.* Henry IV
Spain	Charles II	*s.* Philip II		
Turkey	Soliman II	*s.* Selim II	*s.* Amurath III	*s.* Mohamet III
Russia				
Prussia				

MODERN HISTORY. 1300–1850.

DYER: Modern Europe.

THE RELIGIOUS WARS.

1530–1660.

III. During the Catholic Reaction.

RANKE: History of the Popes.
GARDINER: History of England.
FREER: Reign of Henry IV.
SULLY: Memoirs.

1600 SHAKSPEARE (1564–1616)
1602 Spinola (1569–1620)
1604 The Stuarts in England (1603–1714)
1606 Sully (1559–1641)
1608 Evangelical Union
1610 LOPEZ DE VEGA (1562–1635)
1612 The Romanows in Russia (1612–1730)
1614 New Amsterdam
1616 Galilei (1564–1642)

IV. During the Thirty Years War.

SCHILLER: Thirty Years War.
HEYDENREICH: The Life of Gustavus Adolphus.
BRIDGES: France under Richelieu, etc.
GUIZOT: History of the English Revolution.

1618 Beginning of the Thirty Years War
1620 BACON (1561–1626)
1622 Tilly (1559–1632)
1624 Richelieu (1585–1642)
1626 Rubens (1577–1640)
1628 Petition of Right
1630 CALDERON (1601–1687)
1632 Gustavus Adolphus (1594–1632)
1634 Wallenstein (1583–1634)
1636 Oxenstiern (1583–1654)
1638 National Covenant
1640 CORNEILLE (1606–1684)
1642 Civil War in England
1644 China conquered by the Mantcheou
1646 Flight of King Charles
1648 Peace of Westphalia

V. During the English Commonwealth.

CARLYLE: Oliver Cromwell's Letters and Speeches.
GUIZOT: History of Oliver Cromwell.
GUIZOT: History of Richard Cromwell.
GUIZOT: Monk.
COUSIN: Richelieu and Mazarin.
FREER: Regency of Anne of Austria.

1650 MARQUIS OF WORCESTER (— –1667)
1652 First Anglo-Dutch War
1654 Mazarin (1602–1661)
1656 Condé (1621–1686)
1658 Death of Cromwell (1509–1658)
1660 MOLIÈRE (1622–1673)

The Empire	Rudolph II	*b.* Matthias	*1 c.* Ferdinand II	*s.* Ferdinand III	*s.* Leopold I
England	Elizabeth	*3 c.* James I	*s.* Charles I	Commonwealth	
France	Henry IV	*s.* Louis XIII	*s.* Louis XIV		
Spain	Philip III	*s.* Philip IV			
Turkey	Mohamet III	*s.* Ahmed I	*s.* Osman II	*b.* Amurath IV	*b.* Ibrahim / *neph.* Mohamet IV
Russia		Michael Romanow	*s.* Alexis		
Prussia		George William	*s.* The Great Elector (Frederick William)		

MODERN HISTORY.

1300–1850.

DYER: Modern Europe.

THE SUCCESSION WARS.

1660–1770.

I. During the first (the glorious) part of the Reign of Louis XIV.

1660 MOLIÈRE (1622–1675)
1662 Colbert (1619–1683)
1664 Montecuculi (1608–1681)
1666 Annus Mirabilis
1668 John de Witt (1625–1672)
1670 MILTON (1608–1674)
1672 Turenne (1611–1675)
1674 Sobieski (1629–1696)
1676 Messina, b.
1678 Peace of Nimwegen
1680 DRYDEN (1631–1701)
1682 Philadelphia
1684 The Great Elector (Frederick William, 1620–1638)
1686 The League of Augsburg

MARTIN: Age of Louis XIV.

II. During the English Succession Troubles.

1688 English Revolution
1690 LOCKE (1632–1704)
1692 La Hogue, b.
1694 Dutch William (William III., 1650–1702)
1696 Peter the Great (1672–1725)
1698 Prince Eugène (1663–1736)
1700 NEWTON (1642–1727)

MACAULAY: History of England.

III. During the Spanish Succession Troubles.

1702 Spanish Succession War
1704 Gibraltar taken by the English
1706 Marlborough (1650–1722)
1708 Charles XII. (1682–1718)
1710 ADDISON AND STEELE (1672–1719) — (1671–1729)
1712 The Bourbons in Spain
1714 The Guelphs in England

MAC FARLANE: A Life of Marlborough.
LORD MAHON: History of the War of the Succession.
VOLTAIRE: History of Charles XII.

The Empire	Leopold I	*s.* Josef I	*b.* Charles VI		
England	Charles II	*b.* James II	*nephew* William III	*c.* Anne	*2 c.* George I
France	Louis XIV	*g. g. s.* Louis XV			
Spain	Philip IV	*s.* Charles II	*gr. neph.* Philip V		
Turkey	Mohamet IV	*b.* Soliman III	*b.* Ahmed II	*neph.* Mustapha II	*b.* Ahmed III
Russia	Alexis	*s.* Feodor II	*bs.* Iwan and Peter	Peter the Great	
Prussia	The Great Elector	*s.* Elector Frederick	King Frederick I	*s.* Frederick William I	

MARTIN: Decline of the Monarchy, First Vol.
MAHON: History of England, Ch. I.–XX.
SOUTHEY: Rise and Progress of Methodism.
CHADWICK: Life and Times of Defoe.

MARTIN: Decline of the Monarchy, Second Vol.
CARLYLE: Frederick the Great.
MAHON: History of England, Ch. XX.–XLVI.
STAHR: The Life and Works of Lessing.

MODERN HISTORY.

1300–1850.

DYER: Modern Europe.

THE SUCCESSION WARS.

1660–1770.

D

IV. During Walpole's Ascendency.

1714 The Guelphs in England
1716 Alberoni (1664–1752)
1718 John Law (1671–1729)
1720 DEFOE (1631–1731)
1722 The Regent of Orleans, (1674–1723)
1724 Sir Robert Walpole (1676–1745)
1726 Fleury (1653–1743)
1728 Ripperda (1680–1737)
1730 POPE and SWIFT (1688–1744)—(1667–1745)
1732 Georgia settled
1734 The Polish election
1736 Wesley (1703–1791)
1738 Lorraine acquired by France

V. During the Heroic Career of Frederick the Great.

1740 VOLTAIRE and ROUSSEAU (1694–1778)—(1712–1778)
1742 Treaty of Breslau
1744 Anson (1697–1762)
1746 Culloden b.
1748 Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle
1750 KLOPSTOCK (1724–1803)
1752 Kaunitz (1711–1794)
1754 French-Indian War
1756 Beginning of the Seven Years War
1758 Pombal (1699–1782)
1760 LESSING (1729–1781)
1762 Frederick the Great (1712–1786)
1764 Clive (1725–1774)
1766 Lord Chatham (1708–1778)
1768 Cook (1728–1779)

The Empire	Charles VI		Ch VII	Francis I	*s.* Jos. II
England	George I	*s.* George II	*g. s.* George III		
France	Louis XIV	*g. g. s.* Louis XV			
Spain	Philip V	*s.* Ferdinand VI	*b.* Charles III		
Turkey	Ahmed III	*neph.* Mahmoud I	*b.* Osman III	*c.* Mustapha III	
Russia	Peter the Great	Cath. *wife*	Peter II *g. s.*	*aunt* Anne	*sister* Elizabeth	Catharina II *niece by ma'ge*
Prussia	Frederick William I	*s.* Frederick the Great			

MODERN HISTORY: 1300–1850.

[*DYER: Modern Europe.*]

E ERA OF REVOLUTIONS: 1770–1850.

MASSEY: History of the Reign of George III.
IRVING: Life of Washington.
FRANKLIN: Autobiography.
BANCROFT: History of the United States.
IRVING: Goldsmith.
ALFIERI: Autobiography.

LEWIS: Life and Works of Gœthe.
CARLYLE: Life of Schiller.
LOCKHART: Life of Scott.
THIERS: History of the French Revolution.
THIERS: History of the Consulate and Empire.
CARLYLE: French Revolution.
RANDALL: Life of Jefferson.

MOORE: Life of Byron.
FINLAY: The Greek Revolution.
STAPLETON: George Canning.
COLTON: Life and Times of H. Clay.

LOUIS BLANC: History of Ten Years.
H. MARTINEAU: History of the Peace.

I	During the Anglo-American Revolution
1770	GOLDSMITH (1728–1774)
1772	Struensee (1737–1772)
1774	First American Congress
1776	Declaration of Independence
1778	Lafayette (1757–1834)
1780	ALFIERI (1749–1803)
1782	Washington (1732–1799)
1784	Franklin (1706–1790)
II	During the French Revolution
1786	Pitt (1759–1806)
1788	Hastings (1733–1818)
1790	GŒTHE and SCHILLER (1749–1832)—(1759–1805)
1792	The French Republic
1794	Robespierre (1759?–1794)
1796	The Directory
1798	Nelson (1758–1805)
1800	EMMANUEL KANT (1724–1804)
1802	Peace of Amiens
1804	Napoleon (1769–1821)
1806	Stein (1757–1831)
1808	Wellington (1769–1852)
1810	WALTER SCOTT (1771–1832)
1812	Burning of Moscow
1814	Lundy's Lane, b.
III	During the Spanish-American Revolution
1816	Metternich (1773–1859)
1818	Independence of Chili
1820	BYRON and MOORE (1788–1824)—(1779–1852)
1822	Henry Clay (1777–1852)
1824	Missolonghi, *siege*
1826	George Canning (1770–1827)
1828	Bolivar (1783–1830)
IV	Since the July Revolution of 1830
1830	WORDSWORTH (1770–1850)
1832	The Orleans Dynasty in France
1834	Sir Robert Peel (1750–1830)
1836	Daniel Webster (1782–1852)
1838	Dost Mohammed (1785–1839)
1840	TENNYSON (b. 1810)
1842	Espartero (b. 1792)
1844	O'Connell (1775–1847)
1846	Mexican War
1848	European Revolution
1850	LONGFELLOW (b. 1807)

The Empire	Joseph II — *b.* L. II — *s.* Francis II — *s.* Ferdinand
England	George III — *s.* George IV — *b.* Will. IV — *niece* Victoria
France	Louis XV — *g. s.* Louis XVI — Republic — Emp. Napoleon I — Louis XVIII — *b.* Chas. X — *5 c.* Louis Philippe
Spain	Charles III — *s.* Charles IV — Joseph Bonaparte — *s. to Ch. IV* Ferdinand VII — *d.* Isabella
Turkey	Must. III — *b.* Abd-ul-Hamid — *neph.* Selim III — *c.* Mahmoud II — *s.* Abd-ul-Meshid
Russia	Catharina II — *s.* Paul — *s.* Alexander I — *b.* Nicholas
Prussia	Frederick the Great — *neph.* Fred'k Will. II — *s.* Frederick William III — *s.* Fred'k Will. IV
UNITED STATES.	WASHINGTON — WASHINGTON — JOHN ADAMS — JEFFERSON — JEFFERSON — MADISON — MADISON — MONROE — MONROE — JOHN QUINCY ADAMS — JACKSON — JACKSON — VAN BUREN — HARRISON — TYLER — POLK — TAYLOR

ALPHABETICAL LIST

OF ALL THE NAMES MENTIONED IN THE TABLES.

A

Abbassides. (750–1258 A. D.) The descendants of Abbas, the uncle of Mohammed. The first half of the 8th century is the period of the greatest extent of the Caliphate. The will of the High Pontiff of Islam was supreme from the Jaxartes to the Atlantic. The house of Ommiah, under whom these conquests had been made, reigned less than a century, and their fall entailed the dismemberment of the Empire. In 750, the Caliphate of Damascus was transferred, by the result of a ferocious civil war, from the descendants of Moawiyah to those of Abbas. The Ommiads were hunted down through all Asia, and Abul Abbas was established as Caliph on the throne of Damascus. But a single youth of the doomed race escaped from destruction. After a long series of romantic adventures, he found his way into Spain; he there found partisans, by whose aid he was enabled to establish himself as sovereign of the country, and to resist all the attempts of the Abbassides to regain possession of the distant province. From this Abderrahman the Ommiad proceeded the line of Emirs and Caliphs of Cordova. From the year 750, the Mohammedan history loses its unity. The Empire was permanently divided; never again did all the disciples of Islam unite in allegiance to a single representative of the Prophet. The Ommiads of Cordova form the natural centre for the history of Mohammedanism in the West, and the Abbassides in Bagdad for its history in Asia. The latter ruled over Mohammedan Asia for more than five centuries. The Caliphate of the Abbassides was extinguished in the year 1258 A. D., by the Mongols who stormed Bagdad, (the only city at that time in the possession of the Caliphs,) and for seven days deluged its streets with blood. Motazem, the 56th and last Caliph, was sewn up in a cow's hide, and dragged by the conquerors through the streets of his capital.

Abdallah. (650 A. D.) The first Saracen general who invaded Latin Africa, (Northern Africa, west of Egypt.) Abdallah's expedition marks the first Mohammedan attack on the West, which was not checked until about 80 years afterwards, on the battlefield between Tours and Poitiers in Central France.

Abderrhaman. (731–787 A. D.) The founder of the Ommiad dynasty in Spain, (Caliphate of Cordova.) It was against this Caliph that (778) Charlemagne undertook the expedition so famous in romance, which resulted in the temporary occupation of Navarre and part of Arragon by the Franks, and ended with the battle of Roncesvalles, where Charlemagne's army was wellnigh annihilated, and the renowned Roland lost his life. (See ABBASSIDES.)

Abraham, (2000 B. C.) is the progenitor, not only of the Hebrew nation, but of several cognate tribes. His history is recorded to us with much detail in Scripture, as the very type of a true patriarchal life. His character is that which is formed by such a life: free, simple, and manly, full of hospitality and family affection; truthful to all such as were bound to him by their ties, though not untainted with Eastern craft to those considered as aliens; ready for war, but not a professed warrior; free and childlike in religion, and gradually educated by God's hand to a continually deepening sense of its all-absorbing claims. The place we have to assign to him in Universal History is indicated in Genesis xiv. 5–7. Abraham appears here as the head of a small confederacy of chiefs, powerful enough to venture on a long pursuit to the head of the valley of the Jordan, to attack with success a large force, and not only to rescue Lot, but to roll back for a time the stream of northern immigration. His high position is seen in the gratitude of the people, and the dignity with which he refuses the character of a hireling.

Abelard. (1079–1142.) A celebrated French philosopher, the restorer of philosophy in the Middle Ages, who taught with wonderful success in Paris. He simplified and explained everything, presenting philosophy in a familiar form, and bringing it home to men's bosoms. While in the zenith of his popularity he became violently enamored of his pupil Heloise, and forgot his duty towards God and men. His cruel punishment is known. He renounced the world and turned monk. Here he found no peace. He was charged with heresy, and St. Bernard succeeded in getting him condemned by the Church. He sought and found a refuge at Cluny, where he died two years afterwards.

Abulfeda. A celebrated Mohammedan historian and geographer, who wrote a compendious History of Mankind, especially valuable on account of the information it contains about the early Caliphs. His chief work is, "The True Disposition of Countries," of which the description of Syria, his native country, is the most interesting and authentic portion. Died, 1333.

Act of Supremacy of Nov., 1534. By this Act, Henry VIII., king of England, was declared "the only supreme Head in Earth of the Church in England." Considerable sarcasm has been levelled at the assumption by Henry of this title. Yet it answered a purpose in marking the nature of the revolution, and the emphasis of the name carried home the change into the mind of the country. It was the epitome of all the measures which had been passed against the encroachments of the spiritual powers within and without the realm; it was at once the symbol of the independence of England, and the declaration that thenceforth the civil magistrate was supreme, within the English dominions, over Church as well as state.

Addison and Steele. These two writers introduced into English literature the Essay, a species of writing in which they have never been surpassed by any of their many followers. Addison's poem, "The Campaign," on the victory of Blenheim, and his imposing but frigid tragedy of Cato, have given him a lasting reputation; and Steele also holds a respectable rank among our comic dramatists as the author of "The Tender Husband," and "The Conscious Lovers;" but it is as writers of periodical essays, that they have sent down their names with most honor to posterity. They started, in 1709, the *Tatler*, which in 1711 was replaced by the *Spectator*. This was a daily publication, containing observations on life and literature by an imaginary Spectator, who communicates them to a small circle of six intimate friends. The delicate imagination and exquisite humor of Addison, and the vivacity and warm-heartedness of Steele, give a charm to these papers which is to be enjoyed, not described. We not only admire the writers, but soon come to love them, and to regard both them and the personages that move about in the world they have created as among our best and best-known friends. (See Macaulay's Essay on Addison.)

Æmilius Scaurus is a significant illustration of the tone and character of the Roman aristocracy during the epoch of Patrician restoration between the Gracchan and Cinnan revolutions. Marcus Æmilius Scaurus was the son of highly noble but not wealthy parents, and therefore compelled to make use of his far from mean talents. He raised himself to the consulship (115), and censorship (109), was long the chief of the senate and the political oracle of his order, and immortalized his name not only as an orator and an author, but also as the originator of some of the principal public buildings executed in this century. But if we look at him more closely, his greatly praised achievements amount merely to this much, that as a general he gained some cheap village triumphs in the Alps, and as a statesman, won, by his laws about voting and luxury, some victories nearly as serious over the revolutionary spirit of the times. His real talent consisted in his being quite as accessible and bribable as any other upright senator, with only this difference, that he discerned with some cunning the moment when the matter began to be hazardous. As commander of the expedition against Jugurtha (111 B.C.), he negotiated a peace with him, in which the interests of the republic were so shamefully betrayed, that it required all his cunning to escape a summary condemnation.

Æschylus. (525–456.) The eldest of the three great tragic poets, (Sophocles and Euripides being the others.) After having distinguished himself as a soldier in the great battles of Marathon, Salamis, and Platææ, he made poetry the serious business of his life. The bold sentiments of the soldier-poet, who is inflamed with the love of freedom, reflect the predominant spirit of haughty Athens during the time of the great struggle which she so gloriously maintained. The number of tragedies written by Æschylus

is doubtful, but seven only are extant. The earliest among them is, "The Persians," which is a glorious panegyric upon Athens. The most sublime, and, at the same time, the most simple of all, is the "Prometheus Chained." Shelley, whose whole poetry is deeply imbued with the mysterious power of Æschylus, has imitated the imagery of this play with a success proving that a man must be a poet to truly appreciate the great tragedian.

Agathocles, (361–289,) was a soldier of fortune, who raised himself from the meanest beginnings to the throne of Syracuse. He displayed a never surpassed energy and perseverance. Apart from his enterprising genius we know nothing of him, except his sanguinary and faithless disposition. Agathocles, however, though among the worst of Greeks, was yet a Greek, and the mortal foe of the ancient enemy of the Greeks, the Carthaginians. His life was one of great struggle against Carthage for the possession of Sicily. Often was he on the eve of dislodging them from the island, but quite as often they were masters of all Sicily as far as the solid walls of Syracuse. At length he conceived the bold plan of attacking them in their own home in Africa. When they had defeated him, and believed him almost their captive, he suddenly carried the terror of his arms before the walls of Carthage (310). His expedition terminated miserably, but he had pointed out the way to the future enterprises of the Romans. After a long and illustrious reign, Agathocles died in extreme old age, in a state so lamentable and destitute, that, in spite of his tyranny, his misery excites compassion. After his death, the Greeks of Sicily were without any leading power, and the Carthaginians could extend their dominion unmolested.

Aix-la-Chapelle, (Peace of.) The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which made an end to the war of the Austrian Succession, was signed Oct. 18, 1748. The object of this war had been to establish four States on the ruins of the House of Austria. But though that house had been deprived of Silesia and the Italian duchies, these losses were small compared with the danger with which it had at first been threatened. It had established its order of succession, and still remained a first-rate Power. France, the chief promoter of the war, gained nothing by it, and had increased her debt by $250 millions, lost her reputation, and ceased to be regarded as the arbitress of Europe. England procured compensation for her commercial losses, established her maritime preponderance, and enforced the recognition of the exclusion of the Stuart dynasty. But the most important consequence of the war was the elevation of Prussia to a first-rate Power. The morality of the conduct by which Frederick II. achieved this result will hardly bear a strict scrutiny. In some eyes, however, success will be his great justification: for it is certain that he increased the Prussian dominions by a third.

Alaric, king of the Visi-Goths, invaded Italy 400 A. D. He besieged Rome three times; the third time he took the city, which was given to pillage. Nothing Pagan did escape but that which found shelter under Christianity. For Alaric was, though a barbarian, a Christian. Heathenism was buried under the ruins of heathen Rome. After ravaging Southern Italy, he was preparing to pass into Africa, when he fell suddenly ill, and died at Cosenza in 410.

Alba, (FERDINAND ALVAREZ DE TOLEDO, DUKE OF,) holds the first place among the great men whom Philip II. inherited from his father. A faithful friend and servant of Emperor Charles, Alba attained even in early youth a high degree of glory. He was accounted the pride of the Spanish nobility and the darling of his nation. In the prime of manhood, during the German campaigns, when he stood, a consummate captain, at the side of Charles, the cause and warnings he gave his master were wholly on the side of mercy. It awakes a melancholy feeling to compare the beautiful picture of Alba's youth and manhood with the cruelties which in his old age he perpetrated in the Netherlands, whither he was sent by Philip in 1567. He was actually sent thither to terrify the inhabitants into submission. It has been computed that in six years upwards of 18,000 individuals perished by Alba's order under the hand of the executioner. But the resolute firmness of an irritated people was proof against this. The revolt, instead of being suppressed, took constantly greater dimensions, and after six years' fruitless efforts to quell it, Alba solicited to be recalled. In December, 1573, he was superseded by Requesens, and soon after his return to Spain was imprisoned. He was, however, subsequently released to undertake the conquest of Portugal, which he rapidly executed (1580). Died, 1582. (See Motley: RISE OF THE DUTCH REPUBLIC.)

Alberoni, (1664–1752,) cardinal and first minister of Spain. He formed many schemes for the extension of the power of Spain, invading Sardinia

and Sicily, and carrying on intrigues in France, England, and Turkey; but the alliance of France and England against him defeated his projects, and led to his dismissal and exile.

Alboin, (561–573,) king of the Lombards in the 6th century. He invaded Italy in 568, and reached Rome without encountering resistance. He took Pavia after a siege of three years, and made it the seat of government. His valor as a soldier was equalled by his justice and moderation as a sovereign. But at a festival at Verona, he incurred the just resentment of his wife, by sending her wine in a cup wrought from the skull of her own father; and forcing her to drink from it, she had him assassinated A. D. 573.

Albuquerque, Alfonso d', (1452–1515,) Portuguese Viceroy of the Indies, who by his wise and just government did much to establish the power of the Portuguese there. The Indians long remembered his just and humane rule, and used to go to his tomb to pray for help against the injustice of his successors.

Alcibiades. (B. C. 450–404.) Rich, handsome, profligate, and clever, Alcibiades was the very model of an Athenian man of fashion. In lineage he was a striking contrast to the plebeian orators of the day. The Athenian public, in spite of its excessive democracy, was anything but insensible to the prestige of high birth; and Alcibiades traced his paternal descent from Ajax, whilst on his mother's side he claimed relationship with Pericles, who on the death of his father had become his guardian. From early youth the conduct of Alcibiades was marked by violence, recklessness, and vanity. He delighted in astonishing the more sober portions of the citizens by his capricious and extravagant feats. Nothing, not even the sacredness of the laws, was secure from his petulance. His beauty, his wit, and his escapades, had made him the darling of all the Athenian ladies, nor did the men regard him with less admiration. But he was utterly destitute of morality, whether public or private. The lion's whelp, as he is termed by Aristophanes, was even suspected, in his boundless ambition, of a design to enslave his fellow-citizens. His vices, however, were partly redeemed by some brilliant qualities. He possessed both boldness of design and vigor of action. Such was the man who 415 B. C. incited the Athenians to undertake an expedition into Sicily. The majority of people in Athens had no idea of Sicily, but listened to the account given them by Alcibiades, who was well informed. He, eager for fame, and full of the feeling of his innate powers, thought the resources of the republic sufficient for conducting this war. It seemed to him that such a conquest must naturally give his nation the preponderance over its enemies in the Peloponnesus, and over the barbarians not only of Persia, but of Africa. If the Attic government had been better administered, a power comparable to that of Rome or Carthage might have been founded. But scarcely had Alcibiades set sail with Nicias and Lamachus, at the head of the finest fleet which had hitherto appeared on the Ægean Sea, when a combination was formed against him at Athens by all those who either were jealous of his fame, or had to complain of his youthful licentiousness and imprudence. He was publicly accused of sacrilege. Even the Athenians, who in their comic theatre laughed at all their gods, recalled on this accusation their best general from the greatest enterprise that any Grecian people had ever undertaken. Alcibiades took refuge in Lacedæmon. The consequence of this war was not only the utter failure of the expedition (see PELOPONNESIAN WAR), but also renewed war with Sparta. The Spartans, led by Alcibiades, invaded Attica, and seized upon Decelia, whence they molested the whole territory; the defection of the allies became no longer doubtful, but Athens, powerful in her self, held out till the seventh year. Alcibiades was now recalled, and, 407 B. C., he returned to Athens, where he was received with great enthusiasm. The records of the proceedings against him were sunk in the sea, his property was restored, and he was appointed commander-in-chief of all the land and sea forces. But his unsuccessful expedition against Andros and the defeat at Notium, furnished his enemies with a handle against him, and he was superseded in his command. Thinking that Athens would scarcely be a safe place for him, Alcibiades went into voluntary exile, to his fortified domain at Bisanthe in the Thracian Chersonesus. He collected a band of mercenaries, and made war upon the neighboring Thracian tribes, by which means he afforded protection to the neighboring Greek cities. Before the fatal battle of Ægos-Potami (B. C. 405), he gave an ineffectual warning to the Athenian generals. After the establishment of the tyranny of the Thirty (B. C. 404), he was condemned to banishment. Upon this he took refuge

with Pharnabazus, and was about to proceed to the court of Artaxerxes, when one night his house was surrounded by a band of armed men, and set on fire. He rushed out sword in hand, but fell, pierced with arrows. (B. C. 404.)

Alcuin (735–804). An English scholar of the 8th century, and the friend of the Emperor Charlemagne. Early distinguished for his piety and learning, he was sent on a mission to Rome, and being introduced to Charlemagne while in Italy, settled on his invitation in France. He earnestly supported the plans of his great master for the restoration of learning, and founded schools at several of the principal cities. His works include a large number of highly interesting letters, which give a life-like picture of the great events of his day. The wars of Charlemagne against the Saracens and the Saxons are there described; and there too we find a graphic account of the inner life of the imperial court. His poem on the bishops and saints of the Church of York is especially interesting for the account it gives us of the contents of the library collected by Archbishop Egbert at York, the benefit of which Alcuin had enjoyed in his early years, and which he speaks of as far superior to any collection then existing in France.

Alexander the Great. King of Macedonia, the renowned conqueror who made the language, arts, and literature of Greece the common property of mankind. He was the son of Philip of Macedon, and was born in the same year in which the temple of Diana at Ephesus was destroyed, (356 B. C.) His education was intrusted to the great philosopher Aristotle, who made him the most far-seeing man of his time, and developed those qualities which distinguish the real statesman from the reckless adventurer, that is: *the power to distinguish between what is possible and what is not possible.* He was scarcely twenty years old when he ascended the throne, and one of the first acts of his reign was to force the Greeks, at a national council held at Corinth, to choose him as commander-in-chief of the forces destined to act against Persia. (See, for his campaigns, Appendix, page 177.) After having conquered Western Asia, he returned in triumphal progress to Babylon. At Susa he gave his army rest, and carried out one part of his great scheme for the permanent union of the conquerors and the conquered by intermarriage. The nuptial festival lasted five days, and the example set by Alexander in marrying Statira, the daughter of Darius, was followed by about eighty of his generals, and ten thousand of his soldiers, who also took Asiatic wives. At length he reached Babylon, where he began to make preparations for future undertakings of great magnitude; but he was seized with an illness, the effect of which was probably aggravated by depression of spirits, and by intemperance, and died in the 13th year of his eventful reign, and the 33d of his life, (323 B. C.) When required to name his successor, he is said to have replied, "*to the most worthy.*" Immediately before he died he gave his ring to Perdiccas. Pursuant to his own direction, his body was embalmed and conveyed to Alexandria. Nothing could exceed the magnificence of the funeral car, which was adorned with ornaments of massive gold, and so heavy, that it was more than a year in being conveyed from Babylon to Alexandria, though drawn by eighty-four mules.

Alexander Severus (205–235). Roman Emperor. He was made Cæsar in 221, and succeeded Elagabalus in the following year. The principal event of his reign was the war with Artaxerxes, king of Persia, over whom he gained a great victory. He next marched against the Germans, who had invaded Gaul; and, while there, a sedition broke out in his army, and the emperor and his mother were murdered. Alexander Severus was a man of noble and religious character, admitted a bust of Christ among the images in his domestic place of worship, and showed a favorable disposition towards the Christians, without, however, formally recognizing the new faith as a tolerated religion.

Alexander III. (1100–1179.) A Pope of great ability, and the formidable rival of Emperor Frederick Barbarossa. (See BARBAROSSA.) At the demise of Adrian IV. (1159), the cardinals found themselves unable to agree in the choice of a successor. They, for the most part, united their endeavors in favor of Alexander III., a prelate of distinguished courage and experience, to whom others opposed Victor IV. A synod held by Emperor Barbarossa in Pavia, declared in favor of the latter. Alexander pronounced the ban of the Church against his opponent; declared the Emperor to have forfeited the crown; and endeavored to rouse in his own cause all the Christian courts. But the army of the Emperor marched towards Rome, and Alexander fled to France. In the mean time the prin-

cipal towns of Lombardy had embraced the cause of Alexander, who returned to Rome. Long and severe was the struggle of the Emperor against the Pope and the Lombard towns. At length he marched on Rome and appeared before the fortress of St. Angelo. The townsmen exerted themselves valiantly in its defence; the battering-ram shook the halls of St. Peter's, and the Metropolitan Church of Christendom was taken by storm. The Pope fled, and the Emperor made his entry into Rome. But a terrific pestilence soon drove him out of it. Never did the climate of Rome work with such awful force for the liberation of Italy. Nor was this the worst: all Lombardy was in arms, and Barbarossa was glad to be able to escape to Germany. With the flight of the Emperor rose the cause of Alexander. City after city declared their allegiance to him, who was now avowedly the head of the Lombard League. The great fortress which had been erected in the plains of Piedmont, as the impregnable place of arms for the League, was named after the Pope, Alexandria. It was not till the pride of Barbarossa had been humbled by his total defeat at Legnano (May 29, 1176), that Alexander could trust the earnest wishes of the Emperor for peace. They met on the 24th of July, 1177, in the Church of St. Mark at Venice. The Emperor prostrated himself and kissed the feet of the Pontiff, who raised him up and gave him the kiss of peace. The Anti-Pope and his party were overawed by the unity between Barbarossa and Alexander. Victor prostrated himself at Alexander's feet, confessed his sin of schism, and implored and received forgiveness. Soon afterwards (March, 1179) closed the long and eventful pontificate of Alexander III. Thus ended the first act of the great tragedy, the strife of the Popes with the imperial house of Hohenstauffen.

Alexandria, the Hellenic capital of Egypt, was founded (B. C. 332) by Alexander the Great. On his voyage from Memphis to Canobus he was struck by the natural advantages of the little town of Rhacôtis, on the north-eastern angle of the Lake Mareotis. Here Alexander determined to construct the future capital of his western conquests. The ground-plan was traced by Alexander himself; the building was commenced immediately, but the city was not completed till the reign of the second monarch of the Lagid line, Ptolemy Philadelphus. It was of an oblong figure, rounded at the N.E. and S.W. extremities. Its length from E. to W. was nearly 4 miles; its breadth from S. to N. nearly a mile, and its circumference about 15 miles. The interior was laid out in parallelograms: the streets crossed one another at right angles. Two grand thoroughfares nearly bisected the city. They ran in straight lines to its four principal gates, and each was about 200 feet wide. On its northern side Alexandria was bounded by the sea; on the south by the Lake Mareotis; to the west were the Necropolis and its numerous gardens; to the east the Eleusinian Road and the Great Hippodrome. The tongue of land upon which it stood was singularly adapted to a commercial city. The island of Pharos broke the force of the north wind, and of the occasional high floods of the Mediterranean. The headland of Lochias sheltered its harbors to the east; the Lake Mareotis was both a wet-dock and the general haven of the inland navigation of the Nile valley, whether direct from Syene, or by the royal canal from Arsinoë on the Red Sea, while various other canals connected the lake with the Deltic branches of the river; an aqueduct conveyed the Nile water into the southern section of the city, and tanks, many of which are still in use, distributed fresh water to both public and private edifices. Its harbors were sufficiently capacious to admit of large fleets, and sufficiently contracted at their entrance to be defended by booms and chains. A number of small islands around the Pharos and the harbors were occupied with forts, and the approach from the north was further secured by the difficulty of navigating among the limestone reefs and mud banks which front the debouchure of the Nile.

For the Alexandrian Library, see Appendix, page 225.

Alfieri, (1749–1803,) the Italian dramatist. Leaving college at 16, he led for some years a restless and dissipated life, travelling through Europe. A new epoch opened in his career in 1755, when he published his first drama, "Cleopatra," which was successful. Thenceforth he was a laborious student and dramatic author, composed fourteen tragedies in seven years, studied Latin, and even at the age of forty-eight made himself master of Greek. At Florence he met the Countess of Albany, wife of Prince Charles Edward, on whose death he married her. Among his tragedies are, "Saul," "Antigone," "Agamemnon," "Mary Stuart," &c.

Alfonso X., (1221–1284,) surnamed the Wise and the Astronomer; king of

Castile and Leon. He was a competitor in 1257 with Richard, Earl of Cornwall, for the imperial dignity, and, though unsuccessful, assumed the title of emperor, which he was compelled to renounce in 1274, in favor of Rudolph of Hapsburg. He distinguished himself by his love of science and had the famous Alphonsine Tables prepared; published a collection of Laws, ordered the use of the vulgar tongue in public acts, and had a translation of the Bible prepared. These services he rendered to his country, though a large part of his reign was troubled by wars with the Moors, revolts of his subjects, and civil wars respecting the succession.

Alfred the Great, (849–901,) king of England, succeeded to the throne in 871, in his 22d year, at a time when his kingdom was troubled by domestic dissensions, and the Danish invasion. But he finally secured the peace of his dominions, and struck terror into his enemies, after fifty-six battles by land and sea, in all of which he was personally engaged. His warlike exploits formed, perhaps, the least of the services he rendered his country. He was so exact in his government, that robbery was unheard of. The state of learning, in his time, had been so low, that, from the Thames to the Humber, scarcely a man could be found who understood the service of the Church. To remedy this evil, he invited men of learning from all quarters, and placed them at the head of schools in various parts of his kingdom. The laws published by Alfred were chiefly selections from those previously existing. Alfred himself wrote several works, and translated others from the Latin, particularly the General History of Orosius, and Boethius's "Consolations of Philosophy." To Alfred, England is indebted for the foundation of her fleet.

Ambrose. See St. Ambrose.

American Congress. See Congress.

Amiens, (Peace of.) It was concluded on March 25, 1802, and made an end to the *War of the Second Coalition against France.* (See Appendix, page 212.) England consented to all the Continental acquisitions of the French Republic, recognized the existence of the secondary republics (Batavian, Helvetian, Ligurian, and Cisalpine), and restored the French Colonies. Thus ended the first stage of the Great Revolution which had shaken Europe to its centre. England alone had sustained the shock with firmness; but England sought repose before the renewal of the struggle, which all men felt to be inevitable, and which many foresaw would be a struggle for existence.

Amphictyonic Council. A common worship and participation in the same religious ceremonies created at an early period in Greece; a relation between neighboring nations, even without reference to any affinity of race; and on this were founded the leagues known as amphictyonic leagues, or unions of neighboring states. The most renowned among those leagues was that which assembled at Thermopylæ, and at the Temple of the Pythian Apollo. By the extension of its original numbers this society obtained a great name throughout almost the whole of Greece, and acquired a certain degree of political importance, which it long retained. The origin of this league, which was styled preëminently "the Amphictyonic," is lost in mythical obscurity. The members formed twelve clans, all of which, in ancient times, resided in or near Thessaly, and down to the Macedonian period retained in name the same privileges. The objects of the league were the promulgation of certain precepts of civilization and humanity, the protection of the temple at Delphi, and latterly (from B. C. 586) the superintendence of the Pythian games. It was not, however, intended either for defence against foreign enemies, or for interference in the internal affairs of the States of which it was composed; consequently we find that the Amphictyonic Council was inoperative in the Peloponnesian War and the other quarrels of the Grecian States. On the other hand, its efficiency was shown in the so-called holy wars against violators of the Temple (against Phocis, 355–346; against Amphissa, 340–339, and against the Ætolians, 280). In these wars, however, the more powerful members of the confederacy often employed it as an instrument for carrying out their own plans.

Amphipolis, a town of Macedonia, situated upon an eminence on the eastern bank of the Strymon, about three miles from the sea. The Strymon flowed almost round the town, whence its name Amphi-polis. It stands in the pass which traverses the mountains bordering the Strymonic Gulf; and it commands the only easy communication from the coast of that gulf into the great Macedonian plains. The city was founded in 437 B. C., by Athenian colonists. It soon became an important place, and was regarded by the Athenians as the "jewel of their empire." In 424 B. C. it

surrendered to the Spartans, and continued from that time independent of Athens. Amphipolis afterwards became closely allied with Olynthus, (see OLYNTHIAN WAR,) and with the assistance of the latter was able to defeat the attempts of the Athenians under Timotheus to reduce the place in 360 B. C. Philip of Macedon, upon his accession (359 B. C.), declared Amphipolis a free city, but in the following year he took the place by assault and annexed it permanently to the kingdom of Macedon.

Amru (A. D. 662), one of the greatest Mussulman commanders, and the conqueror of Egypt. He invaded it in June, 639; took Pelusium and Memphis; obtained the aid of the Coptic Christians, and after a siege of fourteen months took Alexandria. He is reproached, but on untrustworthy evidence, with having burnt, by order of the Caliph Omar, the famous library of Alexandria. Amru was named governor of Egypt, which flourished under his wise administration.

Amsterdam. See NEW AMSTERDAM.

Anabasis. After the humiliation of Athens, the Spartans resolved to restore liberty to the Greek States on the coast of Asia. Lysander and the other generals forwarded this undertaking, in which there was much to gain, and which afforded them a long respite from the severe pressure of their domestic laws. Too late the king of Persia perceived that he had erred in not maintaining a balance of power between Athens and Sparta. The Greeks were now so much the more dangerous, as many young men had grown up during the long Peloponnesian war, who were acquainted with arms only, and who were the first *soldiers* properly so called, as they followed warfare for hire. Ten thousand of these mercenaries shook the throne of the second Artaxerxes, and after his brother (the younger Cyrus) had fallen in battle (Cunaxa, 401 B. C.), formed the bold attempt of forcing their way back to their country through the midst of Asia, and at the distance of nearly 2,500 miles; and though in the greatest want of provisions, pursued by the best generals of the king through roads often scarcely passable, and treated as enemies by a multitude of Asiatic nations, they completed their enterprise under the conduct of Xenophon the Athenian. (See XENOPHON.) The history of this remarkable expedition has been handed down to us by Xenophon in his *Anabasis.* This title is strictly appropriate only to the first book, which contains an account of the "going up" (meaning of the word *anabasis*) of Cyrus towards Babylon. The remaining books are a narrative of the "going down" (*katabasis*) of the Greeks from Babylonia to the coast of Asia Minor. The *Anabasis,* unquestionably the most attractive of Xenophon's writings, resembles a landscape in full sunlight. Everything lies bright and open before our eyes: nothing stands in the shade; everything appears in its proper stature and coloring; nothing is exaggerated, nothing is presented in too brilliant hues.

Anaxagoras, (500–428,) a celebrated Greek philosopher. He inherited a considerable estate in his own country, which he relinquished to indulge his thirst for knowledge at Athens, where he studied poetry and eloquence, and taught philosophy, having among his pupils Euripides and Pericles. (See these.) His reputation, however, created him enemies, and he was condemned to death on a charge of Atheism, but the sentence was commuted into banishment. Anaxagoras is celebrated as the first of the Greek philosophers, who taught the existence of a *Supreme Spirit,* distant from, yet pervading and governing, the Universe.

Anglo-Dutch War. See Appendix, page 203.

Annus Mirabilis, the year of wonders, 1666. The title of an historical poem of Dryden, in which he describes "the motives, the beginning, progress, and successes of a most necessary war," (the second Anglo-Dutch War, 1665–1667,) etc., and also the great fire which destroyed two-thirds of London. It broke out on Sunday, Sept. 2, 1666, and lasted until Sept. 7. During the first day, the wind, which blew from the east, hourly augmented in violence, and finally changed into a storm. While the storm continued, the conflagration bade defiance to all the exertions of human ingenuity and power. On the evening of Wednesday, the violence of the wind began to abate, and on Thursday evening the weather became calm. This, added to the demolition of many houses, put at length a stop to the conflagration, though months elapsed before the immense accumulation of ruins ceased to present appearances of internal heat and combustion. In Dryden's *Annus Mirabilis,* his genius breaks forth for the first time with any promise of that full effulgence at which it ultimately arrived.

Here we have much both of the nervous diction and the fervid fancy which characterize his best works.

Ansgar. See St. Ansgar.

Anson, George, Lord, (1697–1762,) a celebrated naval commander. In 1739 he was appointed commodore of an expedition against the Spanish settlements in the Pacific Ocean. On this journey he doubled Cape Horn, crossed the Southern Ocean for China, and finally sailed for England, where he arrived June 15, 1744, having circumnavigated the world in three years. His chaplain wrote an account of their voyage, which is one of the pleasantest little books in the world's library.

Antiochus III., king of "Asia,"(238–187,) was the great-great-grandson of the founder of the dynasty. He began to reign at nineteen years of age, and soon displayed sufficient energy and enterprise to warrant his being without ludicrous impropriety addressed in courtly style as "the Great." He succeeded in restoring, in some degree, the integrity of the monarchy. From the ruins of old Troy to the Caucasus and the farthest confines of Media, the whole of Syria, Phœnicia, and Asia Minor belonged to him. He scarcely felt that the Parthians were no longer under his sway; the most beautiful, the most populous and flourishing provinces of the earth obeyed him. The first part of his reign shone with glory, and he was by far the most powerful monarch of Asia. His activity only diminished with increasing age. Antioch was one of the most voluptuous cities in the world; and there the great Antiochus slumbered under the laurels of his earlier years. At this time Hannibal fled to his court, who succeeded in engaging Asia in a contest against the power of Rome. After war was declared, the councils of Hannibal were not listened to with respect to the manner of conducting it. Crowned with garlands, surrounded with eunuchs, by the sound of the flute and lyre, the great Antiochus went forth out of Asia on his elephant covered with splendid trappings, at the head of 400,000 men. In silken and purple tents, before richly covered tables, he expected to triumph over the Romans. In the beginning of spring 191, the Roman staff arrived at Apollonia. The commander-in-chief was Manius Acilius Glabrio, a man of humble origin, but an able general, dreaded both by his soldiers and the enemy. Instead of returning with all speed to Asia, and evacuating the field before an enemy in every respect superior, Antiochus resolved to intrench himself at Thermopylæ, which he had occupied, and there to await the arrival of the great army from Asia. Before its arrival, he was attacked by the Romans, and his army was destroyed; with difficulty, a small band reached Demetrias, and the king himself escaped to Chalcis with 500 men. Europe was lost to him. Scipio, the conqueror of Zama, had been selected at Rome to continue the war on the Asiatic continent. In the valley of the Hermus, near Magnesia at the foot of Mount Sipylus, not far from Smyrna, the Roman troops fell in with Antiochus late in the autumn of 190. The force of Antiochus numbered close on 80,000 men; the Romans had not nearly half that number, but they were so sure of victory, that they did not even await the recovery of their general, who had remained behind, sick. The whole Asiatic army dispersed in tumultuous flight; an attempt to hold the camp failed, and only increased the number of the dead and the prisoners. The estimate of the loss of Antiochus at 50,000 men is, considering the infinite confusion, not incredible; the legions of the Romans had not been engaged, and the victory, which gave them a third continent, cost them only twenty-four horsemen and three hundred foot-soldiers. Asia Minor submitted; including even Ephesus, and Sardes the residence of the court. The king sued for peace, and consented to the terms proposed by the Romans, which, as usual, were just the same as those offered before the battle, and consequently included the cession of Asia Minor. Antiochus himself, in his reckless fashion, soon made a jest of losing half his realm; it was in keeping with his character, that he declared himself grateful to the Romans for saving him the trouble of governing too large a kingdom. But with the day of Magnesia, Asia was erased from the list of great States; and never perhaps did a great power fall so rapidly, so thoroughly, and so ignominiously as the kingdom of the Seleucidæ under this Antiochus the Great. He himself was soon afterwards slain by the indignant inhabitants of Elymais (at the head of the Persian Gulf), whilst plundering a temple of Bel, with the treasures of which he had expected to replenish his empty coffers. (187 B. C.)

Antoninus Pius, (86–161 A. D.) Roman Emperor. Sprung from a wealthy family, he obtained the friendship and confidence of the Emperor Hadrian,

who, in February, 138, adopted him as his successor. His reign was one of the happiest periods the empire enjoyed, and it furnishes few materials for history. A wise ruler and a good man, he has been called a second Numa.

Arabs in Sicily. While the empire of the Arabs was falling into a number of small states, they completed the conquest of Sicily, in which they had been engaged for fifty years, by taking the city of Syracuse, (880 A. D.) Of this capture we have the following account from the pen of an eye-witness:

"Theodosius, the monk, sends his salutation to Leo, the archdeacon. We have held out ten months; during which time we have fought often by day, and many times by night, by water, by land, and under the ground. We have left nothing unattempted against the enemy, and against his works. The grass which grows upon the roofs was our food, and we caused the bones of animals to be powdered in order to use them for meat. At length children were eaten, and terrible diseases were the consequences of famine. Confiding in the security of our towers, we hoped to hold out till we received succor; the strongest of our towers was overthrown, and we still resisted for three weeks. In an instant when, exhausted by heat, our soldiers took respite, a general storm was made on a sudden, and the town was taken. We fled into the church of St. Salvator; the enemy followed us, and bathed his sword in the blood of our magistrates, priests, monks, old men, women, and children. Afterward the most noble of our people, a thousand in number, were put to death before the town, with stones, whips, and clubs; the governor, Nicetas of Tarsus, half flayed alive, with his entrails torn out, was beaten to pieces against a stone; all the great houses were burnt, and the capitol pulled down. On the day when they celebrate Abraham's sacrifice many of them wished to burn us with the archbishop, but an old man, who possessed great authority among them, protected us. This is written at Palermo, fourteen feet under the ground, among innumerable captives, Jews, Africans, Lombards, Christian and unchristian people, whites and moors."

Arbela, a town of Eastern Adiabene, one of the provinces of Assyria, between the Greater Zab and the Lesser Zab. Arbela has been celebrated as the scene of the last conflict between Darius and Alexander the Great. The battle, however, really took place near the village of Gaugamela, ("the camel's house,") on the banks of the Bumodus, a tributary of the Greater Zab, (331 B. C.) Darius left his baggage and treasures at Arbela, when he advanced to meet Alexander.

Archimedes, (139–212,) the most celebrated mathematician among the ancients, was a native of Syracuse. He was equally skilled in the sciences of astronomy, geometry, mechanics, hydrostatics, and optics. The combination of pulleys for raising immense weights, the endless screw, a sphere to represent the motions of the heavenly bodies, etc., were invented by him: but his genius for invention was never more signally displayed than in the defence of Syracuse, when besieged by Marcellus; although the well-known story that among other astonishing novelties he produced a burning glass, composed of reflecting mirrors, by which he fired the enemy's fleet, is most likely a fiction of later times. At length, however, the city was taken by storm, and Archimedes, then in his 74th year, was among the slain. Of the numerous works of Archimedes, nine have come down to us.

Ariosto, Ludovico, (1474–1533 A. D.,) one of the greatest poets of Italy. He was set to study law, but abandoned it in disgust, and gave himself up to literature. After a short residence at Rome, where he composed some comedies, he settled in Ferrara, where he was employed in political negotiations. It was amidst the constant pressure of official duties that he wrote his great epic, the "Orlando Furioso," which occupied his leisure for eleven years, and was published in 1516. It celebrates the semi-mythical achievements of the Paladins of Charlemagne, in the wars between the Christians and the Moors in Spain. It became immediately popular, and has since been translated into all European languages, and passed through innumerable editions. There are several English versions, of which Rose's is most esteemed for fidelity and elegance. Ariosto wrote also some vigorous satires, several comedies, and other poems.

Aristagoras, of Miletus, brother-in-law of Histiæus, was left by him, on his occupation of Myrcinus and during his stay at the Persian Court, in charge of the government of Miletus. His misconduct in this situation caused the first interruption of an interval of universal peace, and commenced the

chain of events which raised Greece to the level of Persia. In 501 B. C., tempted by the prospect of making Naxos his dependency, he obtained a force for its reduction from the neighboring satrap, Artaphernes. While leading it, he quarrelled with its commander: the Persian, in revenge, sent warning to Naxos, and the project failed. Aristagoras, finding his treasure wasted, and himself embarrassed through the failure of his promises to Artaphernes, began to meditate a general revolt of Ionia. A message from Histiæus determined him. His first step was to seize the several tyrants who were still with the armament, deliver them up to their subjects, and proclaim democracy; himself too, professedly, surrendering his power. He then set sail for Greece, and applied for succor, first at Sparta; but after using every engine in his power to win Cleomenes, the king, he was ordered to depart; at Athens he was better received; and, with the troops from twenty galleys, which he there obtained, and five added by the Eretrians, he sent in 499 an army up the country, which captured and burnt Sardis, but was finally chased back to the coast. These allies now departed: the Persian commanders were reducing the maritime towns; Aristagoras, in trepidation and despondency, proposed to his friends to migrate to Sardinia or Myrcinus. This course he was bent upon himself; and, leaving the Asiatic Greeks to allay as they could the storm he had raised, he fled with all who would join him to Myrcinus. Shortly after, probably in 497, while attacking a town of the neighboring Edonians, he was cut off with his forces by a sally of the besieged. He seems to have been a supple and eloquent man, ready to venture on the boldest steps, as means for mere personal ends, but utterly lacking in address to use them at the right moment; and generally weak, inefficient, and cowardly.

Aristides, the Athenian statesman and general. In 477 B. C., as commander of the Athenian contingent in the Greek army under Pausanias, he had the glory of obtaining for Athens the command of the maritime confederacy, and to him was by general consent intrusted the task of drawing up its laws and fixing its assessments. His conduct on this occasion earned him the surname of the Just. In the Gorgias of Plato, he is the example of the virtue, so rare among statesmen, of justice, and is said "to have become singularly famous for it, not only at home, but through the whole of Greece." From 477 until his death in 468, he was the chief political leader of Athens.

Aristophanes. The germ of all comedy lies in the common nature of man; but it unfolds itself prominently in literature, only when society has formed intricate relations, and when oddities and humors of individual character are multiplied. It is not surprising that the literature of a people so voluble in speech and so quick-witted as the Athenians should have abounded in the richest combinations of these provocatives to laughter. This branch of dramatic composition was carried to its highest perfection by Aristophanes, who was the contemporary of the tragic poets and historians. Most of his pieces were written within the period of the Peloponnesian War, (431–404 B. C.,) and some of them have direct reference to the state of things which that hideous strife of mutual hatred and jealousy brought about. The corruption of public and private morals in Greece at this epoch gave the amplest scope to the spirit of travesty and satire. Again, political events such as those of the Peloponnesian War, and magnificent projects of universal empire, like that which drove the Athenians out of their senses at the time of the Sicilian expedition, were brought upon the stage in the most amusing manner, and often with more effect than followed the political discussions of the public meeting. Public men were brought upon the stage by name; and the actors, by the aid of portrait masks, and costumes imitated from the dresses actually worn, represented in the most minute particulars the personages themselves. Socrates, whose strange person and grotesque manners offered irresistible temptations to the wits of the comic stage, is said to have been present when he was brought out in the play of "The Clouds," and to have stood up before the audience with imperturbable good-humor, that they might compare the original with the mimic semblance on the stage. The aristocratic and plebeian demagogues are lashed with infinite and impartial humor in "The Knights," where the high-born equestrians deprive Cleon the leather-dresser of the favor of the ward by setting up the claims of a sausage-seller.

Aristotle was one of the deepest thinkers that ever lived. The fame of his abilities having reached Philip of Macedon, that prince made him tutor to his son Alexander. When Alexander afterward set out on his expedition to Asia, Aristotle settled himself in Athens, where he established a school of philosophy, which was called, probably from his habit of walking as he lectured, the peripatetic. After the death of his pupil and patron, Alex-

ander the Great, he was banished from Athens, and retired to Chalcis, where he died in 322, after having accomplished during his life the task of a giant. His genius embraced all the sciences of his time and invented new ones. His extant works include treatises on the whole range of human knowledge, the most valuable of which is his history of animals. His great pupil, Alexander, aided him in his researches, by supplying him with funds, and by having collections of foreign animals made and sent to him for examination. The philosophy of Aristotle attained immense influence, and was supreme in Europe during the Middle Ages. His word was another Bible, and to question his authority was heresy. After the revival of literature and the Reformation, the magic of his name was lost. And now, after that natural reaction and a period of neglect, he is again studied and praised as one of the greatest intellects that have appeared in the world.

Armada. See SPANISH ARMADA.

Arnold of Brescia, (1155 A. D.,) an Italian monk of the twelfth century, who attracted the confidence of the people and the bitter hatred of the priesthood, by his earnest preaching against the temporal power and possessions of the Church. After an exile from Italy, during which he preached in France and Switzerland, he took the lead in a revolt of the Roman people, and for ten years held his ground as master of the city. At last, terrified by the interdict laid on Rome by Adrian III., the people banished their chosen chief, and shortly after, (1155,) they saw him burnt and his ashes thrown into the Tiber. He was one of the most distinguished early martyrs of political and religious freedom.

Arras, Treaty of, in 1435. This was a congress from all Christendom to bring about a general peace. The first question was to inquire whether it were possible to reconcile Charles VII. and Henry VI., the two aspirants to the French crown. Nothing could be done with the English; so they were suffered to leave Arras. All eyes were turned to the Duke of Burgundy, and all besought him to take pity on France and on Christendom, both suffering from these long wars. The duke sacrificed at last his long resentment (on account of the murder of his father, John the Fearless, in 1419, on the bridge of Montereau,) to the interest of France, and became reconciled to his father's murderer, Charles VII. He was exempted from all vassalage during his life; the king ceded to him the counties of Auxerre and Mâcon, with other places. He promised, besides, to disavow the murder of John the Fearless, to deliver up its authors, and to grant an amnesty to all those of his subjects who had taken up arms against him. On these conditions Philip swore to forget the past, and signed with his cousin an offensive and defensive alliance in the town of Arras. The French were united, and the maintenance of the English dominion became impossible. Paris, after belonging to the crown of England for seventeen years, opened her gates to her king, and soon the English only remained in Normandy and Guienne.

Arsaces I., the founder of the Parthian monarchy, and of the dynasty of the *Arsacides*, flourished in the 3d century B. C. In revenge for an insult offered to his brother by the governor of a province, he raised the standard of revolt in Parthia against Seleucus; and, having succeeded in emancipating his countrymen, they proclaimed him their king. He reigned prosperously for thirty-three years.

Assyrian Empire. See Appendix, page 171.

Athanasius. See ST. ATHANASIUS.

Attila, (453 A. D.,) king of the Huns, and one of the most celebrated leaders of the barbarian hosts which overran the Roman Empire in its decline. His name and the enormous army at his command inspired such terror that he was named the "Scourge of God." After invading the Eastern empire he led his forces into Germany and Gaul, and was defeated in a great battle near Chalons-sur-Marne, in 451. He was acknowledged sovereign of all the tribes between Gaul and the borders of China.

Augsburg, League of. The house of Austria had, by a succession of victories, been secured from danger on the side of Turkey, and was no longer under the necessity of submitting patiently to the encroachments and insults of Lewis XIV. Accordingly, in July, 1686, a treaty was signed at Augsburg on the Lech, in Bavaria, by which the princes of the empire bound themselves closely together for the purpose of mutual defence. The kings of Spain and Sweden were parties to this compact; the king of Spain as sovereign of the provinces contained in the circle of Burgundy, and the

king of Sweden as duke of Pomerania. The Confederates declared that they had no intention to attack and no wish to offend any power, but that they were determined to tolerate no infraction of those rights which the Germanic body held under the sanction of public law and public faith. They pledged themselves to stand by each other in case of need, and fixed the amount of force which each member of the league was to furnish if it should be necessary to repel aggression. The name of William of Orange, husband of Mary, presumptive heiress of the English crown, did not appear in this instrument; but all men knew that it was his work, and foresaw that he would in no long time be the leader of a formidable league against France. Between him and King James II., the vassal of France, there could, in such circumstances, be no cordial good-will. There was no open rupture, no interchange of menaces or reproaches; but the father-in-law and the son-in-law were separated completely and forever. The very thing, however, that estranged William from the Court, endeared him to the English people. Both the great parties began to fix their hopes and their affections on the same leader, and Prince William became the unquestioned chief of the whole of that party which was opposed to the government, a party almost coextensive with the English nation. This league of Augsburg proved to be the prelude to the English Revolution of 1688.

Augustine, Bishop of Hippo. See St. Augustine I.

Augustine, the English Apostle. See St. Augustine II.

Augustus, (63 B. C.–14 A. D.,) the first Roman emperor, at first named Caius Octavius, was grand-nephew to C. Julius Cæsar, who named him his heir, and on whose murder he went to Rome to claim his property and avenge his death—aiming secretly at the chief power. The victory at Actium, 31, made him master of the Roman world. Gradually all the highest offices of state were united in his hands, and the senate gave him the title "Augustus," B. C. 27. He studiously veiled his supremacy under the old republican forms, kept the people amused, carried on wars only to defend the existing frontiers, promoted agriculture, literature, and the arts, and made immense improvements in the city of Rome. His age was the golden age of literature.

6

Aurelian, (212–275.) Having throughout an active life greatly distinguished himself as a valiant, skilful, and successful general, he was chosen emperor on the death of Claudius II., in 270. He drove the barbarians from Italy, vanquished the celebrated Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, and carried her prisoner to Rome; but while on his march toward Persia, in 275, he was assassinated by his mutinous troops. Besides the brilliant military achievements by which Aurelianus restored for a time the prestige of the Roman name, he undertook many great public works, the principal of which was the building of new walls for the defence of the city.

Aurelius Antoninus, Marcus, (121–180,) Roman emperor, was born at Rome. He succeeded Antoninus Pius in 161, having been early adopted by him and married to his daughter Faustina. Lucius Verus was at once associated with him in the empire. Great part of his reign was occupied with wars, the sad necessity of the times. Verus conducted successfully a war with the Parthians; both emperors encountered the barbarians on the Danube, until the death of Verus in 169, and then Aurelius carried on the war, and by his success obtained the surname of Germanicus. It was in the course of this war that the remarkable defeat of the Quadi took place, 174, which was attributed to miracle, and respecting which so much debate has been held. After an expedition to the East to suppress the revolt of his lieutenant there, he had to renew the war in Germany, but, worn out with incessant exertions, died in Pannonia. Marcus Aurelius was not only one of the wisest and best of the Roman emperors, but one of the noblest and most complete characters of the ancient world. In boyhood he was called "Verissimus" (most true), and this chief of virtues distinguished him through life. He was educated by teachers of the Stoic school, and became himself one of the most eminent members of that school. He acquired the title of the "Philosopher," and has left us in his "Meditations" a most precious record of his moral and religious sentiments and opinions, the rules by which he wished to regulate his conduct, etc., set down in detached notes from time to time, as affairs of state gave him leisure. A new English translation of this book was lately published by Mr. George Long. The persecution of Christians in this reign has been urged as a reproach against Aurelius; but it is not known that he ordered it: and it is noteworthy that no persecution took place in Rome or Italy.

Avicenna, (980–1037,) the celebrated Arabian physician and philosopher, was born near Bokhara in 980. He applied himself to the study of mathematical science, logic, medicine, and theology. He wrote a great number of treatises on philosophy and medicine, the most important of which were his commentary on the "Metaphysics" of Aristotle, and his famous "Canon," the sovereign authority in medical science for centuries.

Azincourt. Taking advantage of the civil dissensions which distracted France, Henry V. of England demanded the surrender of Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Provence. This was rejected by the Estates of France as inconsistent with their honor. Henry, glad of so favorable a pretext, now laid claim to the crown of France, landed, in 1415, on the coast of Normandy, and took Harfleur. An epidemic breaking out in the English ranks, the army was so diminished that when the French appeared with an army of 100,000 men the English numbered only 12,000. Henry V. continued, however, his march on Calais: when he had proceeded as far as the village of Azincourt, he came in sight of the French army drawn up on the rising ground to oppose his progress. On the morning of the 25th of October, 1415, St. Crispin's day, Henry V. attacked and conquered his foes. See Shakspeare's HENRY V., Act iv., Scene 8. The battle-field of Azincourt lies near Hesdin, which is in the valley of the Canche, south of Calais. It is a little to the northeast of Cressy.

B.

Bacon, Francis, (1561–1626,) the great English philosopher. He entered Parliament in 1593, continued to advance in reputation, and in 1613 became attorney-general and privy-councillor. The office of lord keeper was given him in 1617, and soon afterward he was made lord chancellor, Baron Verulam, and Viscount St. Albans. But from this time dates the beginning of his miserable fall. Complaints were made of his venality as a judge, which, on inquiry by a Parliamentary committee, were verified: he made full confession, was deprived, fined, and imprisoned during the king's pleasure. He was pardoned, but continued to live in retirement, devoting himself to his favorite studies. The great aim of this extraordinary man was to reform the method of philosophy; he recalls men from blindly following authority, to the observation and examination of nature. His great works are the "Novum Organum" and the "De Augmentis Scientiarum." The former was projected in his youth, was prepared by a series of sketches, revised and rewritten again and again, and finally published in 1620. The celebrated "Essays" were first published in 1597. Among his other works are the "Wisdom of the Ancients," "History of Henry VII.," etc.

Bagdad. A celebrated city of Mesopotamia, within the boundaries of Asiatic Turkey. It is situated on the eastern side of the Tigris, extending about two miles along its bank, with large suburbs on the western side. The river is broad, deep, and rapid. A bridge of boats extends across it, which preserves the intercourse between the inhabitants on both sides. It was built by Almansor, about 760 A. D., who made it the capital of the caliphs of the house of Abbas. See ABBASSIDES.

Bajazet, (1347–1403,) Sultan of the Ottomans. His fiery energy and the swiftness of his movements from point to point of his immense empire acquired for him the surname of "Ildrim," or Lightning. He was continually occupied with war, and was especially ambitious of taking Constantinople. A league of Christian powers was formed against him, and the decisive battle was fought at Nicopolis on the Danube, when Bajazet won a great victory. An attack of the gout prevented the conqueror's further progress in Europe; and soon after, Tamerlane, having conquered a great part of Asia, turned his arms against Bajazet. The memorable battle of these giants was fought on the plains of Angora, in Galatia, in July, 1402. Bajazet was defeated and made prisoner; and after being treated for a time with ostentatious respect, was shut up in an iron cage, and so carried in the train of his conqueror.

Balboa, Vasco Nuñez de, (?–1517,) a Castilian, one of the first who visited the West Indies. Having accompanied Bastidas and Ojeda in their expe-

ditions of discovery to America, he set out in 1513, on another expedition of the same character. He established a colony on the Isthmus of Panama, where he built the first town on the continent of South America, penetrated into the interior, discovered the Pacific Ocean from a peak in Darien, and took formal possession of the new lands and seas in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella. He also obtained information respecting the Empire of Peru. Jealous of his talents and success, rival adventurers accused him of disloyalty, and he was put to death in 1517 by Pedrarias Davila, the Spanish governor of Darien.

Barbarossa, (FREDERICK I.,) (1121–1190,) Emperor of the West, was chosen to succeed his uncle, Conrad III., in 1152. His great ambition was to secure the independence of the Empire, and, above all, to be master of Italy. At the celebrated Diet of Roncaglia, he assumed the sovereignty of the Lombard towns, and received the homage of the lords. After six Italian campaigns, he finally made peace with the Pope and the towns of Lombardy. In 1188 he assumed the Cross, set out in the following year on the Third Crusade, was opposed on the march by the Greek emperor and the sultan, arrived in Asia, and was drowned while crossing a river, in June, 1190. Frederick was great, not only as a soldier, but as a ruler. His administration was marked by justice; his subordinate officers were chosen for their capacity and probity; he was himself an educated man, and promoted education and literature. His memory is still cherished among the peasants of Germany, who dream of the return of Fritz Redbeard as the Welsh did of King Arthur.

Bartholomew. See ST. BARTHOLOMEW.

Beaufort and **Gloucester.** Henry Beaufort was the son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, (died 1399,) and Catherine Swineford. He was consequently half-brother to Henry IV., and uncle to Henry V. He was bishop of Winchester, and was made a cardinal. This Cardinal Winchester became by degrees the richest man in England, perhaps in the world. He made such loans to the crown as no monarch of the day could have done, and by these means he was for a moment the real king of England and France (1430–1432 A. D.) While the English were losing their conquests on the continent, two rival factions, headed by the Duke of Gloucester and the Cardinal Beaufort, the king's uncle and great-uncle, divided between them the power of the state, and kept the country in continual agitation. It was soon apparent that King Henry VI. was incapable of governing, and each faction strove to have the direction of the state. To strengthen his party, Cardinal Beaufort persuaded the king to marry Margareta of Anjou. Gloucester opposed this marriage, and this opposition was mistaken by the queen for personal hatred, and she determined on his overthrow. On the 10th of February, 1448, a parliament was called at Bury St. Edmunds. As soon as Gloucester appeared he was arrested on a charge of high treason, and conveyed to the Tower, where after seventeen days he was found dead in his bed. It was said that he had died from apoplexy, but the belief universally prevailed that he had been murdered. Cardinal Winchester was ailing at the moment of Gloucester's death. He died a month afterward. His death was a serious event. It was the beginning of the end of the fortunes of the house of Lancaster, (1448.)

Becket, St. Thomas à, (1119–1170,) Archbishop of Canterbury, was the son of a London merchant, his mother being a convert from Mohammedanism. In 1158 the king, Henry II., made Becket chancellor, and four years later he was elected Archbishop of Canterbury. Becket now laid aside all pomp and luxury, and led a life of monastic austerity. In the controversy which immediately arose respecting the limits of civil and ecclesiastical authority, Becket asserted against the king the independence of the Church. Thereupon he was condemned, and suspended from his office. He escaped in disguise to France. In 1170, the king and the archbishop were reconciled, and Becket returned to Canterbury. He at once published the Pope's sentence of suspension against the Archbishop of York and other prelates who had crowned Prince Henry. The king's angry expression on hearing this induced four of his barons to go immediately to Canterbury, and after unsuccessfully remonstrating with Becket, they followed him into the cathedral, and murdered him on the steps of the altar, 31st December, 1170. The king denied all share in the murder, and was absolved; but in 1174 he did penance at Becket's tomb.

Bede or **Beda**, (673–738,) surnamed "the Venerable," an English monk and ecclesiastical historian, was for twelve years a student in the monastery of Wearmouth, while Benedict Biscop was abbot. He also received in-

struction from John of Beverley. He was ordained priest about 703, and had already obtained a wide reputation for learning and piety. His whole life was spent quietly in his monastery, devoted to study and writing. His most important work is the "Ecclesiastical History of England," published about 734, and highly esteemed as one of the most trustworthy sources of early English history. It was written in Latin, and was translated into English by Alfred the Great. Bede wrote many works; among others, a "Chronicle" from the Creation to A. D. 725; and he completed a Saxon translation of St. John's Gospel the day he died.

Belisarius, (?–565,) the great general of Justinian. He commanded an expedition against the king of Persia about 530; suppressed an insurrection at Constantinople; conquered Gelimer, king of the Vandals, and put an end to their dominion in Africa. In 535 he was sent to Italy to carry on war with the Goths, and took Rome in 537. He was recalled through jealousy before he had completed the conquest of Italy, but returned to Italy in 544. He was charged in 563 with conspiracy against Justinian, but was acquitted. A life of this great soldier has been written by Lord Mahon.

Benedict. See St. Benedict.

Berengar II. Berengar I. was the grandson (through his mother) of Lewis the Pious. He was originally Marquis of Friuli, (N. E. Italy,) but raised himself to the throne of Italy. He reigned for thirty-six years, but with continually disputed pretensions. He was assassinated at Verona, 924 A. D. Rudolf, king of Burgundy, succeeded him, who soon had to surrender the crown of Italy to Count Hugo of Provence. This Hugo reigned sixteen years (929–945 A. D.) over Italy, against the will of the nation, his son Lothar being associated with him in the government. In 945, Berengar II., son of Berengar I., returned to Italy, where he was welcomed by all the nobles and acknowledged as their king, although Lothar retained the title. Lothar dying, his widow Adelheid was sought in marriage by Berengar II., the new Italian monarch. A gleam of romance is shed on the Empire's revival by her beauty and her adventures. Rejecting the odious alliance, she was seized by Berengar, escaped with difficulty from the loathsome prison where his barbarity had confined her, and appealed to Otto, the German king, the model of that knightly virtue which was beginning to show itself after the fierce brutality of the last age. He listened, descended into Lombardy by the Adige valley, espoused the injured queen and forced Berengar II. to hold his kingdom as a vassal of the Frankish crown. That prince was turbulent and faithless; new complaints reached ere long his liege lord, and envoys from the Pope offered Otto the imperial title if he would re-enter and pacify Italy. The proposal was well-timed. Otto descended from the Alps a second time, deposed Berengar, and received at the hands of Pope John XII. the imperial dignity, which had been suspended for nearly forty years.

Berenger, or **Berengarius, of Tours**, (?–1088,) a distinguished theologian of the 11th century. He was born at Tours, long held an ecclesiastical office there, and was afterward Archdeacon of Angers. He was thoroughly versed in the philosophy of his age, and did not hesitate to apply reason to the intrepretation of the Bible. He denied the dogma of transubstantiation, but was prevailed on to make retractation.

Bernard. See St. Bernard.

Black Prince. See Edward, Prince of Wales.

Boccaccio, (1313–1375,) the celebrated Italian novelist. He was greatly honored in Florence, and was sent on several public embassies; among others, he was sent to Padua, to communicate to Petrarch the tidings of his recall to Florence. He gained the friendship of the illustrious poet, and enjoyed it through life. Boccaccio, like Petrarch, contributed greatly to the revival of the study of classical literature, spent much time and money in collecting manuscripts, and was the first to bring into Italy from Greece copies of the Iliad and the Odyssey. He was chosen by the Florentines to occupy the chair which was established in 1373 for the exposition of the "Divina Commedia." The "Decamerone," on which his fame rests, is a collection of a hundred tales, full of liveliness and humor, but often licentious and indecent. The book was published about 1352, and after two centuries was condemned by two popes and the Council of Trent.

Boethius, (470–524,) a Roman philosopher, whose virtues, services, honors, and tragical end, all combined to render his name memorable, filled the

highest offices under the government of Theodoric the Goth. He was long the oracle of his sovereign and the idol of the people; but his strict integrity and inflexible justice raised up enemies in those who loved extortion and oppression, and he at last fell a victim to their machinations. He was falsely accused of a treasonable correspondence with the Court of Constantinople, and, after a long and rigorous confinement at Pavia, was executed in 524. His "Consolations of Philosophy" written in prison, abounds in the loftiest sentiments clothed in the most fascinating language. This treatise was one of the most widely read books in the Middle Ages, and has been translated into many languages. Alfred the Great translated it into English.

Boleyn, or **Bullin**, **Anne**, (1507–1536,) queen of Henry VIII. After a residence of some years at the French Court, she became maid of honor to Catherine, queen of Henry VIII., and soon attracted the admiration of the king. In 1532, she was made Marchioness of Pembroke, and in the following year married to Henry, and crowned queen. In 1536, charges of conjugal infidelity were brought against her, on which she was tried, and beheaded May 19, 1536. Anne Boleyn was a promoter of the Reformation, and the king's determination to marry her was the occasion of the final separation of England from the Catholic Church. She was the mother of Queen Elizabeth.

Bolivar, Simon, (1783–1830,) the celebrated Liberator of South America. Having acquired the elements of a liberal education at home, he was sent to Madrid to complete his studies; and afterward visited Paris. On returning to South America, in 1810, he pledged himself to the cause of independence, and commenced his military career at Venezuela, as a colonel in the service of the newly founded republic. After many desperate conflicts, the independence of Colombia was sealed, and Bolivar was chosen President of the republic in 1821. Every act of his government showed how zealously alive he was to the improvement of the national institutions and the moral elevation of the people. In 1823, he went to the assistance of the Peruvians, succeeded in establishing their independence, and was proclaimed Liberator of Peru, and invested with supreme authority. In 1825, he visited Upper Peru, which detached itself from the government of Buenos Ayres, and was formed into a new republic, named Bolivia, in honor of the Liberator; but domestic factions sprang up, the purity of his motives was called in question, and he was charged with aiming at a perpetual dictatorship; he accordingly declared his determination to resign his power and to retire to his patrimonial estate. He continued, however, to exercise the chief authority in Colombia till May, 1830. The people ere long became sensible of their injustice, and were soliciting him to resume the government when his death took place, in December, 1830. His intellect was of the highest order, and his general character of that ardent, lofty cast which is so well calculated to take the lead among a people escaping from the yoke of tyranny.

Boniface. See St. Boniface.

Bosworth Field. Henry of Richmond, who became the founder of the Tudor line, was the grandson of Catherine of France and Owen Tudor. His father, Edmund Tudor, had married Margaret Beaufort, the only surviving descendant of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. He was in 1484 the only representative of the red rose of Lancaster. On this account the Bishop of Ely proposed that the crown should be offered to him, on the condition that he should marry the Princess Elizabeth, to whom the claim of the house of York had now devolved. A messenger was despatched to Brittany to inform the earl of the agreement, to hasten his return to England, and to announce the 18th day of October as the day fixed for the general rising in his favor. A storm prevented the execution of this plan. On the 17th of August, 1485, Henry landed on Welsh soil. He marched direct on Tamworth, and met the army of Richard near the town of Bosworth, which gives its name to the decisive battle which was fought there on the 23d of August, 1485. Henry Tudor was crowned on the field of battle, with the coronet which had fallen from the head of Richard, amidst shouts of "Long live King Henry VII."

Bourbons in France. Robert, Count of Clermont, younger son of St. Louis, married Beatrice, heiress of Bourbon. Their son Louis was the first duke of Bourbon and the ancestor of the Bourbon race. He died in 1341. Nearly three hundred years afterward his descendants ascended the French throne, after the extinction of the house of Valois. They ruled over France more than 200 years. This race gave to France seven kings, to

wit, Henry IV., Louis XIII., Louis XIV., Louis XV., Louis XVI., Louis XVIII., Charles X. See GENEALOGY, VII.

Bourbons in Spain, The, are the descendants of Louis the eldest son of Louis XIV., who, through his mother Maria Theresa, (daughter of Philip IV. of Spain,) considered himself the nearest heir to the Spanish crown, after the extinction of the Spanish Habsburgs in 1700. They ruled Spain until 1868. The names of the Spanish Bourbons are the seven following: Philip V., Lewis I., Ferdinand VI., Charles III., Charles IV., Ferdinand VII., Isabella II. See GENEALOGY, IX. and XV., and the SPANISH SUCCESSION WAR, in the Appendix, page 205. See also Macaulay's splendid Essay on Lord Mahon's WAR OF THE SUCCESSION.

Breslau, Peace of, in 1742. The Emperor Charles VI. died on the 20th of October, 1740, and, notwithstanding all Europe had guaranteed the indivisibility of his dominions, the king of Prussia (Frederick II.) claimed Silesia, and took possession of it on the 13th of the following December. The refusal of the emperor's daughter and heir, Maria Theresa, to recognize these claims, (on some Silesian principalities,) occasioned the first Silesian war. (See WAR FOR THE AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION.) This war began with the rapid conquest of Silesia, and a victory gained by the Prussian troops near Molwitz, (April 10th, 1741.) In the following year Frederick overran Moravia and Bohemia, and gained a second victory at Czaslau. Immediately after this battle negotiations were commenced between Austria and Prussia, which terminated in the Peace of Breslau, by which the whole of Lower Silesia and Glatz were ceded to Prussia. If the population of Prussia be estimated as at that time amounting to five millions, almost a third of the whole was gained by this treaty.

Britain Wall. Julius Cæsar endeavored to conquer Great Britain in the year 55 B. C. But finding that the Britons defended themselves obstinately, he crossed over again to France and returned to Rome, and for the next hundred years the Romans left Great Britain quiet. After that time (44 A. D.) a second expedition was undertaken against the Britons by the Emperor Claudius. They were conquered, and remained for about four centuries subject to the Romans. The northern part of the island, (Scotland,) however, remained unconquered, and the inhabitants of that region (the Picts and Scots) made constant inroads into Roman Britain. To protect themselves and the Britons against these enemies, the Romans built two great walls defended with many castles. The first was built in 117 A. D. across the north of England, from the Solway Firth to the mouth of the Tyne. The second was built in 140, across a narrow part of Scotland, between the Firth of Forth and the Clyde. Being built during the reign of the Emperor Antoninus, it was called "Vallum Antonini." It is now known as Graham's Dyke.

Bruce, Robert, (1274–1328,) King of Scotland. He submitted for a time to Edward I., but joined the patriots after the victory at Stirling. In 1299 a regency was appointed, Bruce and his rival Comyn being at the head of it. For several years Bruce kept up the appearance of loyalty to Edward; but in 1306 he murdered Comyn, and soon after was crowned king at Scone. He was defeated by an English army and fled to the isles, his queen and family being captured and imprisoned. The war was renewed in the following year, but Edward's death delayed the decision of the struggle. Bruce twice invaded England, took almost all the fortresses in Scotland, except Stirling, and in 1314 totally defeated Edward II. at Bannockburn. Peace was made with England in 1328, and a few months later Bruce died.

Brundusium, now **Brindisi,** one of the most important cities of Calabria, situated on the coast of the Adriatic Sea. Its name was derived from the peculiar configuration of its celebrated port, the various branches of which, united into one at the entrance, were thought to resemble a stag's head, which was called in the dialect of the natives Brentron or Brentesion. The position of Brundusium, as the point of direct communication between Italy and the Eastern provinces, naturally rendered it the scene of numerous historical incidents. During the civil war between Cæsar and Pompey, Brundusium became the scene of important military operations. After the murder of Cæsar, it was at Brundusium that the youthful Octavius first assumed the name of Cæsar, and the garrison of Brundusium first declared in his favor. Four years later (40 B. C.) it was again besieged by Antony and Domitius Ahenobarbus, and Octavian in vain attempted to raise the siege, but its fall was averted by the intervention of common friends, who effected a reconciliation between the two triumvirs, which is known as the *Peace of Brundusium.*

Brunehilda. The vast country situated between the Rhine and the Loire was divided in 567 A. D., between the grandsons of Clovis, in three parts, in the following manner: A line was drawn from north to south, from the mouths of the Scheldt to the sources of the Saone: the part situated to the west of this line was named Neustria, (Neuster, west) — and the other part, to the east, was named Austrasia, (Ostro, east.) Neustria fell, in the partition, to Chilperic, and Austrasia to Sigebert. Burgundy formed the third great division of Gaul, and fell to the share of Gontram. The great and popular names of this period, and which have found a place in men's memories, are those of the queens, and not of the kings — those of Fredegonda and Brunehilda. The latter, the daughter of the king of the Spanish Goths, her mind imbued with Roman cultivation, and her person fraught with grace and winning charms, was carried, by her marriage with Sigebert, into savage Austrasia — that Gallic Germany which was the scene of one constant invasion. Fredegonda, on the contrary, thoroughly barbaric in her genius, ruled her husband, the poor king of Neustria, a grammarian and theologian, who owed to her crimes his appellation of the Nero of France. She first made him strangle his lawful wife, Galswinta, Brunehilda's sister; and then despatch his sons-in-law, and his brother-in-law, Sigebert. This fearful woman was surrounded by men devoted to her service, whom she fascinated by her murderous genius, and whose faculties she disturbed by intoxicating beverages. It was through them that she reached her enemies. The ancient devotees of Aquitaine and Germany were revived in the retainers of Fredegonda, who, beautiful and homicidal, and possessed by pagan superstitions, appears to us like a Scandinavian Valkyria. She compensated the weakness of Neustria by audacity and crime; made a war of stratagems and assassinations on her powerful rivals; but, perhaps, saved the west of Gaul from a fresh invasion of barbarians.

Brutus, Lucius Junius, one of the first consuls of Rome. His history, the greater part of which belongs to poetry, ran as follows: The sister of King Tarquin the Proud (Tarquinius Superbus) married Marcus Brutus, who died, leaving two sons under age. Of these the elder was killed by Tarquin, who coveted their possessions; the younger escaped his brother's fate only by feigning idiocy, whence he received the surname of Brutus. After a while, Tarquin became alarmed by the prodigy of a serpent crawling from the altar in the royal palace, and accordingly sent his two sons, Titus and Aruns, to consult the oracle at Delphi. They took with them their cousin Brutus, who propitiated the priestess with the gift of a golden stick enclosed in a hollow staff. After executing the king's commission, the youths asked the priestess who was to reign at Rome after Tarquin, and the reply was, "He who first kisses his mother." Thereupon the sons of Tarquin agreed to draw lots which of them should first kiss their mother upon arriving at Rome; but Brutus, who better understood the meaning of the oracle, stumbled upon the ground as they quitted the temple, and kissed the earth, mother of them all. Soon after followed the rape of Lucretia; and Brutus accompanied the unfortunate father to Rome, when his daughter sent for him to the camp at Ardea. Brutus was present at her death, and the moment had now come for avenging his own and his country's wrongs. He summoned the people, obtained the banishment of the Tarquins, and was elected consul with L. Tarquinius Collatinus. Resolved to maintain the freedom of the infant republic, he loved his country better than his children, and accordingly put to death his two sons, when they were detected in a conspiracy, with several other of the young Roman nobles, for the purpose of restoring the Tarquins. He moreover compelled his colleague, L. Tarquinius Collatinus, to resign his consulship and leave the city, that none of the hated family might remain in Rome. And when the people of Veii and Tarquinii attempted to bring Tarquin back by force of arms, Brutus marched against them, and, fighting with Aruns, the son of Tarquin, he and Aruns both fell, pierced by each other's spears. The matrons mourned for Brutus a year, and a bronze statue was erected to him on the Capitol, with a drawn sword in his hand.

Burleigh, William Cecil, (1520–1598,) Baron, Secretary of State, and Lord High Treasurer of England. On the accession of Edward VI., the protector Somerset gave him a responsible office, and took him with him on the expedition to Scotland. He was soon after made secretary of state, and did much to promote the freedom of trade. Elizabeth made him secretary of state and privy councillor, on her accession, and he remained first minister till his death. In 1572, he became lord high treasurer, having previously been raised to the peerage. Through all the grave religious, political, and international difficulties of his long administration,

he displayed consummate ability, integrity, sagacity, and moderation; and the Protestant system was firmly established by the measures he adopted. Died August 4th, 1598.

Byron, George Gordon, (1788–1824,) the most eminent English poet of the 19th century. His love of liberty and independence were prominent traits in his disposition, and they grew into a fixed aversion to control. In 1805 he went to Cambridge, and there became chiefly remarkable for his eccentric habits and his defiance of discipline. On quitting Cambridge, he soon after published his "Hours of Idleness." This volume met with most severe censure from the Edinburgh Review. The ridicule thus cast by the critic on the poet was not suffered to rest there: he amply revenged himself in the celebrated satire of "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers." After a stay of two years on the continent, he gave to the world the first two cantos of "Childe Harold's Pilgrimage." This was quickly succeeded by "The Giaour," "The Bride of Abydos," "Lara," "The Corsair," &c.; and the noble bard became the poetical idol of the day. In 1815 he married, but the union was not productive of happiness, and Lord Byron again went to the continent, with a determination not to return to his native country. During his various travels in the south of Europe, his admirers in England were indulged with the productions of his powerful and versatile muse: sometimes soaring into the pure regions of taste, breathing noble sentiments and chivalric feelings; at other times descending to voluptuousness, or grovelling in vulgarity. Among the poems written during his last stay in Italy are the third and fourth cantos of "Childe Harold," several tragedies, and "Don Juan," admitted to be his greatest work, though from its subject, treatment, and tendency, unfit for idle readers. In 1823, the state of the Greeks awoke his sympathy, and, with disinterested generosity, he resolved to devote his fortune, his pen, and his sword to their cause. His energies, however, were no sooner called into action than he was assailed by disease; and he expired of a fever, at Missolonghi, on the 19th of April, 1824, in the 37th year of his age, to the inexpressible sorrow of the Greeks, by whom he was venerated for his personal exertions and liberal pecuniary aid.

C.

Cade, John, better known as Jack Cade, was an Irish adventurer, who headed the insurrection in Kent in the reign of Henry VI. He took the name of Mortimer, and encamped with a large body of his followers on Blackheath, 1st of June, 1450. Memorials of the hardships complained of, and the remedies desired, were sent to the king. He defeated Sir Humphrey Sevenoaks, and on the 1st of July entered London. He kept his followers from plunder for a day or two; had Lord Say and Sele beheaded; was driven out of London and his followers dispersed; and was taken and killed soon after in Sussex.

Cæsar, Caius Julius, (100–44 B. C.) The celebrated Roman Dictator. Having distinguished himself as an orator in the impeachment of Cornelius Dolabella, he speedily grew a public favorite, and became successively military tribune, quæstor, and ædile. The profusion with which he lavished his liberality while in these offices involved him very deeply in debt; but having obtained, B. C. 60, the government of Spain, he managed to amass money sufficient for the discharge of his debts. Finally, the next year, he became consul, and obtained the government of Gaul, with the command of four legions. And now it was that his genius had ample scope. His military career was rapid and brilliant, and Gaul was wholly subjected to the Roman power. These transactions and his invasions of Britain are graphically related in his Commentaries. His successes excited the jealousy of Pompey, who caused Cæsar to be recalled. He refused to obey this order, marched with his army into Italy, and seized the public treasure. He then followed Pompey into Greece, and defeated him in the memorable battle of Pharsalia, from which Pompey escaped only to be assassinated in Egypt. Having crushed every attempt at resistance on the part of the sons and friends of Pompey, he was declared perpetual dictator, a title which some of his friends wished to alter to that of king; and it is more than probable that he would have become an absolute king, but that Brutus and other

republicans penetrated his designs, and sternly resolved to make his life the sacrifice to the freedom of his country. Notwithstanding dark hints had been given to him of his danger, he attended a meeting of the Senate without taking any measures for the safety of his person, and fell beneath the daggers of the conspirators, on the ides of March, B. C. 44, and in the 56th year of his age. One of the best English accounts of the life of Cæsar is to be found in Merivale's "History of the Romans under the Empire," vols. i. and ii.

Cairoan. Some wandering tribes invited Ocbah, the general of Moawiyah, (the first of the caliphs of the house of Ommia,) to liberate them from the intolerable yoke of the Byzantine emperor. Ocbah achieved this enterprise, and in the country of the ancient Cyrene, the birthplace of so many poets and philosophers, confirmed his conquest by erecting the fortress of Cairoan. The city was built 12 miles westward of the sea and 50 miles to the south of Tunis. It is situated at the foot of a hill abounding in springs of fresh water, and surrounded by fertile meadows, in a soil rich in mines of salt. Ocbah traced a circumference of 3,600 paces, which he surrounded with a brick wall: in the space of five years the governor's palace was surrounded with a sufficient number of private houses; a spacious mosque was supported by 500 columns of granite and Numidian marble; and Cairoan became the seat of learning as well as of empire.

Calais. Calais is a seaport town of France on the Strait of Dover, 26 miles from Dover, and 19 miles from Boulogne. In 1347 Calais was taken by Edward III. of England, after a siege of 11 months. The king ordered all the inhabitants to evacuate the town, and peopled it anew with English — a policy which probably preserved so long to his successors the dominion of that important fortress. He made it the staple of wool, leather, tin, and lead — the four chief, if not the sole commodities of the kingdom, for which there was any considerable demand in foreign markets. This occupation of a French fortress by a foreign power was a perpetual insult to the national pride of France: it was a memorial of evil times, while it gave England inconvenient authority in the "narrow seas." At length, in 1558, it was taken by the duke of Guise, after it had remained for 210 years in the power of the English.

Measured by substantial value, the loss of Calais was a gain for England.

English princes were never again to lay claim to the crown of France, and the possession of a fortress on French soil was a perpetual irritation. But Calais was called the "brightest jewel in the English crown." A jewel it was, useless, costly, but dearly prized. Over the gate of Calais had once stood the insolent inscription:

> "Then shall the Frenchmen Calais win
> When iron and lead, like cork, shall swim;"

and the Frenchmen had won it in fair and gallant fight.

Calderon, (1600–1685?) a very distinguished Spanish dramatist. Calderon was a most prolific writer, beginning at the age of 14, and writing his last auto at 80. After he entered the church, he wrote only sacred pieces, and became indifferent to his comedies and other earlier works. He had a marvellously fertile imagination, crowds his plays with incident and action, clothes his thought and sentiment in the richest and most exuberant language, glorifies the chivalric sense of honor, and, above all, is animated and inspired by religion. He was "the true poet of the Inquisition." Among the most admired of his dramas are, "Love after Death," "The Secret in Words," "The Constant Prince." One of the most celebrated of his autos, or sacred pieces, is the "Devotion of the Cross."

Caligula, Caius Cæsar Augustus Germanicus, (12–41,) Roman Emperor, was the son of Germanicus. He succeeded Tiberius, A. D. 37, with fair promise of becoming the father and friend of his people; but at the end of eight months he was seized with a fever, which appears to have permanently deranged his intellect; for his disposition totally changed, and he committed the most atrocious acts of impiety, cruelty, and folly. He caused sacrifices to be offered to himself, his wife, and his favorite horse; indulged in the most frightful immoralities; murdered many of his subjects with his own hands; had others put to the rack while he was enjoying his meals, or beheaded in his presence. One of his hugest follies was the erection of a bridge of boats across the sea between Baiæ and Puteoli. Its completion was celebrated by a great banquet, at the close of which he had a number of the guests, friends and enemies, flung into the sea. He projected expeditions to Gaul, Germany, and Britain; and having reached the sea, he bid his soldiers gather shells for spoils, and then led them back to Rome. But in the midst of his enormities he was

assassinated by a tribune of the people as he came out of the theatre, A. D. 41, in the 29th year of his age.

Calvin, Jean, (1509–1564,) the great Reformer, founder and head of the Genevese theocracy. He was destined for the church, and sent to study at Paris; and there he became first acquainted with the doctrines of the Reformation. He then studied law, and in 1532 returned to Paris, a decided convert to the reformed faith. Compelled to fly from Paris in 1533, after various wanderings he found a protector in Margaret, queen of Navarre. In the following year he went to Basel, and there completed and published his great work, the "Institutes of the Christian Religion." He went, in 1536, to Geneva, where reform had just been established; and there, on the pressing entreaties of Farel and his friends, he remained. In 1538, Calvin and Farel were expelled from Geneva. Calvin was, however, recalled three years later, and soon proposed and got established his system of church government. He sought to regulate manners as well as faith, and rigorously censured and punished all who resisted his authority. He applied himself also to reform the civil government; established an academy; fostered literature and science, and made Geneva "the metropolis of the reformed faith." His personal character was spotless, but austere; his labors as pastor, lecturer on theology, councillor, author, and correspondent were immense and incessant. The terrible rigor of his ecclesiastical rule was most strikingly shown in his treatment of Servetus, who for his theological opinions was burnt at Geneva in 1553. The great distinguishing features of Calvinism are the doctrines of absolute predestination, of the spiritual presence only in the Eucharist, and the independence of the church. John Knox was the friend of Calvin, and introduced his system in Scotland.

Camoens, (?–1579,) the celebrated Portuguese poet. He joined the army, and fought against the Moors. Indignant at receiving no recompense on his return, he went to India, and there took part in several military expeditions, enjoying also the opportunities thus afforded of a larger acquaintance with nature; and in 1569 he returned to Portugal. After ten years of neglect and want, he died in a hospital at Lisbon, in 1579. His great poem is the "Lusiad," in which he celebrates the principal persons and events of Portuguese history. The Lusiad has been translated into English by Mickle.

Canning, George, (1770–1827,) Prime Minister of England. He was educated for the legal profession; but being introduced to the House of Commons by Mr. Pitt, he abandoned the Bar, and devoted himself wholly to politics. His strenuous and able support of the minister was rewarded in 1796 with an under-secretaryship of state. After the death of Pitt and the dissolution of the coalition ministry of Fox and Grenville, Canning became foreign secretary; and to him may justly be ascribed the line of British policy in Spain which destroyed the hopes of Napoleon and led to his final overthrow. He was appointed governor-general of India in 1822: he had already made preparations for his departure, when, in consequence of the death of the Marquis of Londonderry, the seals of the foreign office were delivered to Canning. He now advocated a course of both home and foreign policy strikingly at variance with that of which he had for years been the wittiest and readiest defender. His new policy was as popular as his old had been obnoxious; and the Earl of Liverpool being seized with paralysis, Canning reached, in April, 1827, the grand object of his ambition — that of being head of the administration. But though the new premier was popular with the country, the party with which he had in a great measure ceased to act rendered his task a difficult one. The opposition to him was fierce, almost rancorous; and it was soon obvious that he was suffering, both in mind and body, from over-exertion and constant excitement. These, aggravating the effects of a severe cold, caught while attending the funeral of the Duke of York, brought on an inflammatory disease, which terminated his life at the age of 57, August 8th, 1827. As an orator he has rarely been excelled for finished elegance and classical taste, pouring forth his eloquence in a persuasive, impassioned, and fearless tone, or in a happy vein of caustic irony demolishing the arguments of his opponents. That he was ambitious of place and power, and that during his political career he made some sacrifices of principle to expediency, no one will deny; but, as a statesman, his great aim was to uphold the honor of his country, and to pursue a liberal line of policy at home and abroad.

Canute, (?–1035,) the Dane, King of England, was the son and successor of Sweyn, king of Denmark, with whom he invaded England in 1013. The next year, on the death of Sweyn, he was chosen king by the fleet. He

contested the kingdom with Edmund Ironsides, and on his death became sole king, and, to strengthen his title, married Emma, widow of Ethelred II. His rule, at first severe, was afterward mild and just. He several times visited Denmark; made a pilgrimage to Rome in 1027; founded or restored religious houses, and established just laws.

Capet. See HUGH CAPET.

Carausius, (?–294), a native of Gaul, who had the command of a Roman fleet against the Franks and Saxons in 286, and who, the same year, suspected of treachery, crossed over to Britain, and assumed the title of emperor. He defeated Maximian, and was acknowledged associate in the empire. He held his ground in Britain till 294, when he was murdered by Allectus.

Cardinals, College of. A cardinal is one of the 70 ecclesiastical princes who constitute the Pope's council, from among whom and by the votes of whom the Pope is elected. The cardinals were originally the parish priests of Rome, and played a very subordinate part in a papal election; for the Pope was originally elected by the whole of the clergy of the diocese of Rome, the turbulent barons, and the populace. Pope Nicholas II. summoned, in April, 1059, a council in Rome, (the second Lateran Council.) The first decree of this assembly vested the actual election of a Pope solely in the higher clergy, (the cardinals.) With the cardinal bishops was the initiative; the assent of the cardinal priests and deacons was first required, then that of the laity, and finally that of the emperor. Besides this, it established a kind of prerogative right in the Roman clergy to the pontificate: only in default of a fit person within that church was a stranger to be admitted to the honor. Rome was to be the place of election; but even Rome, by tumult or by contumacy, might forfeit her privilege. Wherever the cardinals were assembled, there was Rome.

Carthage, (800 B. C.) Of all the Phœnician settlements, none obtained a more rapid and secure prosperity than those which were established by the Syrians and Sidonians on the south coast of Spain and the north coast of Africa. Among the numerous and flourishing Phœnician cities along these shores, the most prominent by far was the "new town," Karthada, (Carthage.) Although not the earliest settlement of the Phœnicians in these regions, it soon outstripped its neighbors, and even the motherland, through the incomparable advantages of its situation and the energetic activity of its inhabitants. It was not far from the mouth of the Bagradas, which flows through the richest corn district of northern Africa, and was placed on a fertile rising ground, falling off in a gentle slope toward the plain, and terminating toward the sea in a seagirt promontory. Lying in the heart of the great North-African roadstead, the Gulf of Tunis, at the very spot where that beautiful basin affords the best anchorage for vessels of larger size, and where drinkable spring-water is got close by the shore, the place proved singularly favorable for agriculture and commerce.

Cassiodorus, (468–570,) a Roman statesman and historian. He was first minister to Theodoric the Great and his successor in the Ostrogothic kingdom. He founded a monastery at Viviers, and when seventy years of age he retired to it, and there lived thirty years. His writings are valuable, especially his Twelve Books of Epistles, or rather state papers, on account of the light they throw on the manners of his time.

Cato, Marcus Porcius, (B. C. 234–149,) surnamed the Censor, an illustrious Roman. He was born at Tusculum, and at the early age of seventeen he commenced his career as a soldier, and distinguished himself equally by his courage and his temperance. After some years passed in rural retirement, he was made military tribune in Sicily, and then quæstor in Africa, under Scipio. In 195 he served as prætor in Sardinia. In these situations his conduct was marked by a rigid and honorable economy of the public money; and, in his fortieth year, he arrived at the high dignity of the consulship. He obtained important military successes in Spain and Greece, and in 1814 had the office of censor. He strongly opposed the luxury of the Romans, and incessantly endeavored to animate their hatred of the Carthaginians by speeches in the senate, usually concluding with "Carthage must fall." He composed many works; but the treatise "De Re Rustica," and some fragments of Roman history, are all that we know of his writings.

Caxton, William, (? — 1491,) the earliest English printer, was a native of Kent, and settled in the Low Countries at Bruges. He was taken into the

suite of Margaret of York, wife of the duke of Burgundy. While residing in Flanders, he acquired a knowledge of the art of printing from Colard Mansion, the first printer of Bruges, and translated and printed in that country the "Recuyell of the Historyes of Troyes." Returning to England in 1476, he set up a press in Westminster Abbey; and in 1477 issued the "Dictes and Sayings," the first book printed in England. In the practice of the new art, Caxton enjoyed the patronage of the kings Edward IV., Richard III., and Henry VII. Died, 1491. A very learned and valuable work on the Life and Typography of William Caxton, in 2 vols., 4to, by W. Blades, appeared in 1861–63.

Cecil. See BURLEIGH.

Cervantes, (1547–1616,) a celebrated Spanish novelist. He gave early promise of literary talent, and received a careful education, studying at the universities of Alcala and Salamanca. He entered the army, and took a distinguished part in the famous battle of Lepanto, where he was thrice wounded, and lost the use of his left arm. After this, he joined the troops at Naples, but in 1575 he was taken prisoner by a corsair, and remained in slavery at Algiers five years. When he was at length ransomed, he again served as a soldier for several years, and then settled at Madrid, married, removed to Seville in 1588, and published in the course of ten years about thirty dramas; but though he showed great genius, he was not so successful as his rival Lope de Vega, and he was driven to various hard shifts to earn a livelihood. Ultimately he abandoned dramatic composition for prose romance, and in 1605 appeared the first part of that extraordinary work which has immortalized his name — "Don Quixote." Cervantes had in view, by this work, to reform the taste and opinions of his countrymen. He wished to ridicule the silly romances then so popular in Spain, poor, unnatural, exaggerated imitations of the earlier romances of chivalry, and which were exerting a very mischievous influence. The work was, at first, coldly received, but it soon met with applause, several editions were called for within the first year after its appearance, and it became one of the most popular works that was ever written. It was speedily translated, and became a classic in most European languages.

Chaldæan Empire. See Appendix, page 170.

Charlemagne, or **Charles the Great**, (742–814,) King of the Franks, and Emperor of the West, was the eldest son of Pepin the Short, and grandson of Charles Martel. He succeeded his father, with his brother Carloman, in 768, and on the death of Carloman, three years later, became sole monarch. In 772 Charles began his wars with the Saxons, which occupied him year by year till 803. They were pagans, and he sought to convert them as well as conquer them. He treated them alternately with great mildness and savage cruelty, beheading on one occasion above 4,000 of them. Their most famous leaders were Witikind and Alboin. During these thirty years of war, Charles had also to fight the Lombards, Huns, Saracens, &c. He made an end to the Lombard kingdom, and assumed the crown himself. In 800 Charles was crowned at Rome Emperor of the West, by Pope Leo III., and received the title of Augustus. His empire extended from the North Sea to the Mediterranean, and from the Atlantic and the Ebro, in Spain, to the Raab and the mouth of the Oder. Charlemagne was great not only as a conqueror, but as a legislator, and a promoter of science and literature. He entertained scholars at his court, founded monasteries, churches, and schools, and obtained the praise of statesmen, churchmen, and men of letters. We have a trustworthy account of this great man in Eginhardt's "Vita Caroli Magni."

Charles Martel, (685–741), Duke of Austrasia, was a son of Pepin of Herstal. He is one of the greatest heroes in early French history. He won a great and memorable victory over the Saracens in 732, near Tours, destroying their army and slaying their king, Abderrhaman. In 735 he made himself master of Aquitaine and Gascony. He took Avignon from the Saracens, gained another great victory over them near Narbonne, and with the aid of Luitprand, king of the Lombards, besieged them in that town. Charles had never taken the title of king, but only that of mayor of the palace; but at his death he divided his dominions like a king, between his sons Carloman and Pepin. Shortly before his death he received two nuncios from Pope Gregory III., the first that were sent to France. Charles acquired the surname Martel (Hammer) from his victory over the Saracens near Tours.

Charles of Orleans, (1391–1465.) Louis, Duke of Orleans, and uncle to King Charles VI., was assassinated in 1407, by John the Fearless, duke of Bur-

gundy. The eldest son, Charles of Orleans, married the daughter of the count of Armagnac, who became the chief of the Orleanist party, called after him the Armagnacs. An army of ferocious Gascons marched to Paris, defended by the Burgundians. A frightful war commenced between the party of Armagnac and that of Burgundy. Both sides appealed to the English, and sold France to them. The Burgundians were obliged to submit in 1415, in which year the treaty of Arras suspended the war, but not the executions and the ravages. Henry V., king of England, took advantage of these dissensions, invaded France, and conquered the French army at Azincourt. (See this.) There were no more than 1,500 prisoners, the conquerors having killed all that gave a sign of life. Among the prisoners was Charles of Orleans, whose captivity lasted almost as long as his life. As long as the English believed that he had a chance of the throne, they would not take ransom for him. Confined at first in Windsor Castle, he was soon imprisoned at Pomfret. Here he passed 25 years, honorably treated, but severely. But, for all the English could do, a ray from the sun of France ever shone upon this Pomfret Castle. The most thoroughly French songs that we possess were written there by Charles of Orleans, who, so long encaged, sang the better for it. His poems are perhaps somewhat weak, but they are never bitter, never vulgar, full of good will to all, gracious and amiable. His gentle gayety never goes beyond a smile, and this smile sits near the fount of tears.

Charles the Bold, (1433–1477,) the famous Duke of Burgundy. His great-grandfather, Philip the Bold, the youngest son of King John of France, received in 1361 the duchy of Burgundy. He married, in 1369, Margareta, heiress of Flanders, Artois, and Franche-Comté. By this marriage it was hoped that France would absorb Flanders, and that the two nations being united under one government, their interests would gradually become one. It did not turn out so. The Flemish interests turned the scale: interests hostile to France — alliance with England, at first commercial, then political. Philip the Bold was the founder of the Burgundian power: his three successors were, John the Fearless, died 1419; Philip the Good, died 1467; Charles the Bold, died 1477. (See GENEALOGY, VIII.) The mind of Charles the Bold at first floated among uncertain schemes: he thought of a kingdom of Belgic Gaul, a kingdom of Burgundy, and he even entered into negotiations with the king of Bohemia, who undertook to assist him to the empire after the death of Frederick III. It was with these views that he had bought Guelderland and Zutphen from Duke Arnold. In order to obtain the investiture of them from the emperor, Charles invited him to an interview at Trèves. His plans seem now to have settled in the revival of the ancient Burgundian kingdom. The chief inducement held out to the emperor to grant him the crown was a marriage between Frederick's son Maximilian, and Charles's only daughter Mary. Charles, sure of success, had made all the preparations for his coronation. But two days before the time appointed for it, Emperor Frederick, whose suspicious temper had been roused by Charles's refusal that Maximilian and Mary should be betrothed previously to the coronation, suddenly left Trèves. The duke remained duke as before. But he soon forgot this disappointment and plunged himself into a new undertaking. The Austrian possessions in the Upper Elzass and Suabia had been mortgaged by their duke, Sigismund, to him. The tyranny exercised by Charles's governor, Hagenbach, made the inhabitants try their utmost to pay off the mortgage, in order to return to the allegiance of their own duke. Strassburg supplied the duke of Austria with the money to redeem these possessions. But Charles refused to take it and ordered Hagenbach to resist; but he was seized, tried, and executed, (May, 1474.) Charles avenged his governor by ravaging Elzass, which called upon the Swiss for aid and protection. The aid was promised, and Charles received in November the solemn defiance of the Swiss, and almost at the same time he was apprised of their having gained a bloody victory over his troops at Héricourt, (Nov. 13th 1474.) This was the beginning of the Burgundian War. Charles led upward of 20,000 troops over the Jura in February, 1476, and extended his forces toward the Lake of Neufchatel. Here he took Granson, the garrison of which he caused to be hanged. This atrocity only served to inflame the national pride of the Swiss. They soon took revenge in the battle which the duke suffered himself to be compelled to fight in a narrow defile, where his superiority of numbers was of no avail. His army took to flight, and his camp fell into the hands of the victors, (March, 1476.) This victory of Granson acquired a great military reputation for the Swiss. But they did not use their advantage skilfully. They neglected to occupy the passes leading into the Pays de Vaud, and Charles penetrated through

them to Lausanne. From thence he marched against the town of Morat, which was so valiantly defended that the Swiss army had time to come to its relief. The Burgundian army is said to have been twice as strong as the Swiss; yet the latter began the attack, June 22d, and Charles again rashly abandoned an advantageous position to meet them. This time his defeat was bloody, as well as decisive. Charles himself narrowly escaped being captured. He sank into a state of the deepest despondency; he suffered his beard and nails to grow; and his countenance resembled that of a madman, so that his courtiers and servants feared to approach him. René II., who had been deprived by Charles of his inheritance, took advantage of his distress to attempt the recovery of his duchy of Lorraine. He drove the Burgundians from the open country into the town of Nancy, which he took after a short siege, (October, 1476.) The rage of Charles at this news was uncontrollable: though the winter was approaching, he resolved immediately to attempt the recovery of Nancy, and he himself joined the besieging army in December. Meanwhile René was approaching to raise the siege with a well-disciplined army, which it was evident Charles's force would be unable to withstand; yet he would listen to no counsels of retreat. He assaulted the town in the very presence of René's army: the assault was repulsed, and René then offered him battle, (January 5th, 1487.) It was from the first a hopeless struggle, and Charles ordered a retreat toward Luxemburg. The retreat was intercepted, the army of Charles broke and fled in all directions, and he himself, urging his horse over a half-frozen brook, was immersed, and slain unrecognized. Thus perished miserably, in the midst of his ambitious dreams, Charles of Burgundy, the Great Duke of the West. See Kirk's "Charles the Bold."

Charles I., (1600–1649,) King of England. On the death of his father, in 1625, he ascended the throne, his kingdom being engaged in war with Spain, and the people much imbittered against his friend and minister, Buckingham. From the very first, he found himself in sharp collision with his subjects, his aim being to rule as an absolute monarch, and their aim being to prevent this. Want of supplies on his part, calling of parliaments to grant them, refusal of supplies, and demand of redress of grievances, are the main elements of the conflicts which filled up the years preceding the outbreak of actual war. The third parliament, called in 1628, passed the famous Petition of Right, to which the king most reluctantly, and indeed insincerely, gave his assent. After the murder of Buckingham, the chief advisers of the king were Laud, then bishop of London, and Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterward earl of Strafford. Ship-money was levied, and the legality of it contested by Hampden. In November, 1640, the memorable Long Parliament met, and at once secured itself against dissolution except by its own consent. The struggle went on, and at length war was proclaimed, by the king setting up his standard at Nottingham, in August, 1642. For some time, however, the royalists were generally successful; but the battles of Marston Moor, Newbury, and Naseby were all signally unfavorable to the royal cause. Indeed, after the defeat at Naseby, the king was so powerless that he took the resolution of throwing himself upon the good feeling of the Scottish army, then lying before Newark; and by that army he was basely sold, and delivered into the hands of the Parliament. For a time he was treated with much outward respect, but he found means to make his escape from Hampton Court. On arriving on the coast, he could not obtain a vessel to go abroad, but crossed over to the Isle of Wight, where the governor confined him in Carisbrook Castle. In December, 1648, it was resolved by the Commons that the king should be tried as guilty of treason in making war on his Parliament, and a special High Court of Justice was constituted for the occasion. The trial took place in Westminster Hall, in January, 1649. The king was condemned to death, and on the 30th of January beheaded at Whitehall; his last word to Bishop Juxon being a charge to him to admonish Prince Charles to forgive his father's murderers. (See Appendix, page 202.)

Charles V., (I. of Spain,) Emperor of the West, (1500–1558 A. D.) He was son of the Archduke Philip, of Austria, (who had inherited Burgundy and the Netherlands from his mother Mary,) and Joanna, only child of Ferdinand and Isabella. He succeeded his grandfather Ferdinand as king of Spain, in 1516. On the death of Maximilian I., he was chosen to succeed him. The period of his reign is one of the most momentous in modern history, and full of great affairs, in which Charles had a large personal share. His rivalry with Francis I. of France, and the wars resulting from it; insurrections in Spain and in Flanders; the conflict proceeding in Germany and all Europe between the Reformers and the Catholics; the con-

quest of Mexico and Peru; expeditions against the Moors, both in Spain and Africa — these are the main elements of the story, which it is not possible even to epitomize here. Wearied with incessant cares and activity, Charles, in 1555, resigned his hereditary states of the Netherlands to his son Philip, in an assembly at Brussels. In the following year he gave up Spain, and, a few months after, the imperial dignity. He then returned to Spain, and early in 1557 retired to a monastery in Estremadura. In August, 1558, he is said to have had his own obsequies celebrated; and he died a few weeks later. Charles V. was a man of great intelligence and superior culture, had considerable acquaintance with literature and art, and patronized those eminent in either. He was ambitious, but humane, and pursued a temporizing policy in the great religious struggle of his age. The well-known "History of Charles V.," by Robertson, which first appeared in 1769, was republished in 1856, with valuable notes, and a supplement by Prescott. (See Appendix, pp. 199, 200.)

Charles XII., (1682–1718,) King of Sweden, son and successor of Charles XI., was only fifteen years of age when he ascended the throne in 1697, and his youth encouraged Russia, Denmark, and Poland to unite against him. Denmark being subdued, he attacked Russia, and in the famous battle of Narva, in 1700, he completely defeated them. Poland next felt his power: he dethroned Augustus, and made Stanislaus king in his stead. Thus far his course had been prosperous; but in seeking utterly to crush Peter the Great, he sustained a terrible defeat at the battle of Pultawa, and was himself so severely wounded that he was removed from the field on a litter, and compelled to seek shelter in Turkey. Here his conduct was so violent that the sultan was compelled to besiege his residence. After desperate resistance, Charles was overpowered, and for ten months he was kept a prisoner. He was no sooner allowed to return to his own dominions than he commenced an attack on Norway, and in besieging Fredericks-hall was killed by a cannon shot, in 1718. Voltaire's "History of Charles XII." is a model of clear, precise, and graphic narration — "a line engraving on a reduced scale," says Carlyle, "of that Swede and his mad life."

Chatham, William Pitt, Earl of, (1708–1778,) one of the most illustrious British statesmen, was returned to Parliament in 1734. His talents as an orator were soon displayed in opposition to Sir Robert Walpole, and had so great an effect that the duchess of Marlborough, who had a deadly hatred to that minister, bequeathed to Mr. Pitt a legacy of £50,000. In June, 1757, he was appointed secretary of state and virtual prime minister. His great mind now revealed its full force, and his ascendency was complete over Parliament no less than in the ministry. He aroused the English nation to new activity, and in the space of a few years they recovered their superiority over France, annihilating her navy, and stripping her of her colonies. France was beaten in the four quarters of the world. In 1760, he advised the declaration of war against Spain, while she was unprepared for resistance, as he foresaw that she would assist France. The elevation of England on the ruins of the house of Bourbon was the great object of his policy. But his plans were suddenly interrupted by the death of George II., whose successor was prejudiced against Pitt by his adversary, the earl of Bute. Pitt therefore resigned his position in 1761, only retaining his seat in the House of Commons. Foreseeing the separation of the American colonies from the mother country, if the arbitrary measures then adopted should be continued, he advocated, especially in 1766, a conciliatory policy, and the repeal of the stamp act. In the same year he was invited to assist in forming a new ministry, and was created earl of Chatham; but in 1768 he resigned, partly because of a serious illness, and partly because he found himself inadequately seconded by his colleagues. In the House of Lords he continued to recommend the abandonment of the coercive measures employed against America, particularly in 1774; but his warning was rejected, and, in 1776, the colonies declared themselves independent. He still, however, labored in the cause, and used all his efforts to induce the government to effect a reconciliation with the American states; and, as he was speaking with his accustomed energy on the subject in the House of Lords, he fell down in a convulsive fit. He died a few weeks afterward, May, 1778.

Chaucer, Geoffrey, (1328–1400,) is our first great poet, and the true father of our literature. Compared with his productions, all that precedes is barbarism. But what is much more remarkable is, that very little of what has followed in the space of nearly five centuries is worthy of being compared with what he has left us. He is in our English poetry almost what Homer is in that of Greece, and Dante in that of Italy — at least in his

own sphere still the greatest light. Chaucer lived during the reign of Edward III. His writings are very voluminous, comprising, in so far as they have come down to us, in verse, "The Canterbury Tales," "The Romaunt of the Rose," "Troilus and Creseide," "The House of Fame;" and in prose, (besides portions of the Canterbury Tales,) a translation of Boethius "De Consolatione Philosophiæ," the "Testament of Love," and a "Treatise on the Astrolabe." Chaucer's fame as a writer rests chiefly upon his Canterbury Tales — the plan of which is this: A company of thirty pilgrims collect at the Tabard Inn in Southwark, bound to the shrine of St. Thomas à Becket, at Canterbury. They resolve to shorten the way by telling tales. Nowhere but in the prologue of the Canterbury Tales have we pictures like those of the men and women over whom the later Plantagenets reigned. In the four and twenty tales, we get views of English life in the middle ages, the tone of thought which colored social intercourse, and especially the kind of stories which then did the work of the modern novel. Chaucer sat down in his quiet room at Woodstock, to survey the pilgrim scenes in which he himself had played a part, and selected with an artist's skill those materials of character and costume which best suited the plan he had sketched out for a great national picture of Englishmen painted in English words. His characters are images of the Englishmen who were living in the flesh when the Black Prince won his spurs and Wat Tyler rode with his rabble into Smithfield. Those who wish the scene in all its full illusion must turn from the bare and borrowed outline to the page of old Chaucer himself, whose pen dropped living colors as he wrote. No student of English history can pretend to any real acquaintance with this period who has failed to study the Canterbury Tales.

Chili, Independence of, (1818.) Chili extends along the coast of the Pacific from the frontier of Bolivia in the north, to the Strait of Magellan in the south. Its area is 116,043 square miles, and its population 1,676,243, which contains a larger proportion of European blood than any other part of South America. The Indians, however, form the majority even here, and are in exclusive possession of all that lies south of the river Biobio. Chili originally belonged to the Inca of Peru, from whom it was wrested by Pizarro, who sent Almagro, in 1535, to subdue the country. The contest was continued for a century and a half between these Indians and the Spaniards, often with the most disastrous results to the former, and followed by burnings and ravages. Chili continued a viceroyalty of Spain till 1810, when a revolution commenced which terminated in the independence of the country in 1818. The government is settled and effective: it is a republic, with a president, senate, and chamber of deputies. The capital is Santiago; the commercial metropolis Valparaiso.

China conquered by the Mantchou in 1644. The present dynasty of China are Mantchou Tartars, and are of the Tongoosian race. Their first connection with China was when the Mongols, in 1332, were driven from the throne. Some of the Mongols took, at that time, refuge in the Mantchou territory, which gave offence to the Chinese, who by force compelled them to sue for peace. The first attack on China by the Mantchou was in 1538, by Tae-tsoo. The Chinese consented to pay 800 oz. of silver annually. Tae-tsoo subsequently discovered the Chinese government fomenting a rebellion in his kingdom, and in revenge made a vow to extirpate the Mongol race. A battle was fought between them in 1593, in which the Chinese were defeated. Tae-tsoo now proclaimed himself *Tëen-ming,* (*Heaven's decree,*) and made preparations to march to Pekin. He died, however, before his plan could be carried out. He was succeeded by his son Tsung-tih, who entitled his dynasty Ta-tsing, (*great purity,*) and first brought troops to the frontiers of Leaoutung, but was confined to that territory by a brave Chinese general, *Woosan-kwei.* A rebellion at this time breaking out in China, the general concluded a peace, and invited the Mantchou to aid him. By the aid of the Mantchou the rebels were defeated; but they, seeing an opportunity of obtaining the throne of China, refused to return home. In the mean time Tsung-tih died, and his nephew was proclaimed emperor, under the name of *Shun-che,* in 1644. No proof is required of the state of the empire, when a handful of auxiliary troops possessed themselves of it, without even the trouble of fighting for such vast dominions. The first act of the usurpers was to compel the Chinese to adopt their custom of wearing the hair. In selecting this badge of subjection nothing could be more galling to the Chinese, as hitherto they never cut an inch of their hair. The terms were banishment or acquiescence; the consequence was a general revolt, in which the Mantchou were nearly overpowered; but finally all their foes were either killed or

forced to submit, and the Mantchou dynasty was firmly established on the Chinese throne.

Chosroes, (?–628, A.D.) Chosroes II. was the grandson of Chosroes I., the mighty ruler of the empire of the Sassanidæ, which extended from the Mediterranean to the Indus, and from the Jaxartes to Arabia. A revolution raised him to the throne, and drove him again from it. He fled to the Romans, and was restored by the aid of the Emperor Maurice, (591.) A band of a thousand Romans, who continued to guard the person of Chosroes, proclaimed his confidence in the fidelity of the strangers. His growing strength enabled him to dismiss this unpopular aid; but he steadily professed the same gratitude to him who had been a friend in need. When Maurice was murdered, Chosroes declared war on the murderers, invaded the empire, (603,) took and destroyed many cities, and in the course of a few years extended his dominions to the Nile. Chosroes enjoyed the fruits of his victories with ostentation. His residence of Artemita (60 miles to the north of Ctesiphon) was celebrated throughout the world. 960 elephants and 2,000 camels were maintained there; the stables were filled with 6,000 mules and horses; 6,000 guards mounted before the palace gate, while 12,000 slaves performed the household duties. Forty thousand columns of silver supported a roof from which were suspended 1,000 globes of gold, to imitate the motions of the planets and the constellations of the zodiac. But this prosperity was followed by reverses. In the great battle of Nineveh, (627,) Chosroes was totally defeated by Heraclius. He fled, but was overtaken, and finally murdered by his own son.

Chrysostome. See ST. CHRYSOSTOME.

Cicero, Marcus Tullius, (B. C. 106–B. C. 43,) the prince of Roman orators. At the age of 26 he commenced practice as a pleader. He rose rapidly in his profession, and the quæstorship in Sicily was bestowed upon him. In this office he made himself very popular, and henceforth his course was all prosperous, until he attained, B. C. 63, the great object of his ambition — the consulship. The conspiracies of Catiline made Cicero's consular duty as difficult and dangerous as his performance of it was able and honorable; and he scarcely, if at all, exaggerated his services to Rome when he said that to his conduct "alone was owing the salvation of both the city and the commonwealth." But his popularity declined very soon after the expiration of his consulship, and it was chiefly as a lawyer and author that he for some time afterward exerted his splendid talents. In the struggle between Cæsar and Pompey, Cicero espoused the cause of the latter; but after the fatal battle of Pharsalia he made his peace with the former, with whom he continued to all appearance friendly, until Cæsar fell under the dagger of Brutus. Cicero now took part with Octavius, and pronounced the philippics against Antony, which at once shortened his life and added to his fame. Antony, stung to the quick, insisted upon the death of Cicero, and Octavius basely consented to the sacrifice. In endeavoring to escape from Tusculum, he was overtaken and murdered; and his head and hands were publicly exhibited on the rostrum at Rome. Cicero perished in his 64th year, (B. C. 43.) Of his works, consisting of orations, philosophical, rhetorical, and moral treatises, and familiar letters, written in the purest and most perfect Latin, there have been almost innumerable editions. See "Life of Cicero," by William Forsyth.

Cid, The, (1040–1099,) whose real name was Don Rodrigo Dias de Bivar, the national hero of Spain, was born at Burgos. The facts of his career have been wrapped by his admiring countrymen in such a haze of glorifying myths, that it is scarcely possible to detect them. His life, however, appears to have been entirely spent in fierce warfare with the Moors, then masters of a great part of Spain. His exploits are set forth in a special chronicle, and in a poem of considerable interest, written not long after his death. The story of his love for Ximena is the subject of Corneille's masterpiece, "Le Cid." His last achievement was the capture of Valencia, where he died, in 1099.

Civil War in England. See Appendix, page 202.

Claudius Tiberius Drusus, (B. C. 9–A. D. 54,) Roman Emperor. After spending fifty years of his life in a private station, unhonored, and but little known, he was, on the murder of Caligula, his nephew, A. D. 41, proclaimed emperor by the soldiers, and confirmed in the sovereignty by the senate. At first he performed some praiseworthy acts, but he soon became contemptible for his debauchery and voluptuousness. During the first part of his reign he was completely under the influence of his third wife,

the infamous Messalina, who, for her vices and crimes, was at last put to death. Claudius died of poison administered by his fourth wife, Agrippina, A. D. 54. Claudius visited Britain two years after his succession, and made it a Roman province. He built the port of Ostia, and the Claudian Aqueduct, and executed other great works.

Clay, Henry, (1777–1852,) a distinguished American statesman. Clay was elected to fill an unexpired term in the United States Senate, in December, 1806. In 1811 he was sent to the House of Representatives, and was chosen speaker. He was a warm advocate of the war with Great Britain, and throughout that crisis sustained Madison's war measures with great zeal. In 1814 he was sent to Ghent as one of the commissioners to negotiate the treaty of peace with Great Britain. Returning home, he was again sent to Congress in 1815, and was elected speaker during two consecutive terms. During the year 1818 he achieved great distinction by his advocacy of the claims of the South American republics to the recognition of their independence by the United States. In 1824, Clay was a candidate for the presidency; and Adams, being chosen President, tendered to him the office of secretary of state, which he accepted, and retained till the close of Adams's administration. In 1831 he was sent to the United States Senate, and in 1832 was again a candidate for the presidency, but was defeated by General Jackson. During the session of 1833, when the Tariff question was agitating the nation, he brought forward his celebrated Compromise Bill, which passed both houses, and restored quiet to the country. In 1844 he was for the third time a candidate for the presidency, but was defeated by Polk. In December, 1849, he again took his seat in the Senate, where he remained until 1851, when the encroachments of disease obliged him to tender his resignation. His last service as senator was in 1850, when he originated the series of measures known as the Compromise, which rescued the Union from one of its greatest dangers. A long career of 46 years identified him with much of the history of the American nation, and though he was never president, few presidents could hope for greater dignity or a more enduring fame.

Clive, Robert, (1725–1774,) went to India as a writer, but soon quitted that employment for the army, and was raised to the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the king's service. After a short stay in England for the benefit of his health, he returned to India, and was shortly called upon to march to Calcutta, of which the nabob Surajah Dowlah had taken possession. He was again successful; and perceiving that there could be no permanent peace obtained until the nabob was dethroned, he made the necessary arrangements, and in the famous battle of Plassey put the nabob completely to the rout, and established the power of the English more firmly than it had ever been before. As governor of Calcutta, Clive performed great service, both civil and military; in consequence of which he was raised to the peerage. In 1776 he returned to England, having done more to extend the British territory, and consolidate the English power in India, than any other commander. But the large wealth he had acquired during his long and arduous services, exposed him to an accusation in the House of Commons of having abused his power. The charge fell to the ground, but it hurt his mind so deeply, that he committed suicide in 1774. The achievements of Clive are the theme of one of the most noble essays of Macaulay.

Clovis, (465–511 A. D.,) the founder of the French monarchy, was descended from a race of German chieftains who had established themselves in the Low Countries, and had gradually extended their dominion as far as Paris. He was the son of Childeric, and succeeded him in 481. The first enemy he attacked was Syagrius, the Roman general and governor of that part of Gaul still independent of the barbarians, whose capital was Soissons. Syagrius was vanquished, (486,) and this victory secured the permanence and independence of the French monarchy. It was, above all, as chief of the religious party and defender of the national faith that he offered himself to the native tribes and Catholic clergy of Gaul. He restored the shaken authority of the Church from the shores of the Atlantic to the forests of Germany. Rome, grateful to Clovis, decreed him the glorious title of "Elder Son of the Church," and he transmitted it to all his successors.

Cluny, (910,) a town of France, in the department of the Saone and Loire, situated 10 miles N.W. of Macon, on the river Grosne. Here was the famous abbey of the order of St. Benedict. In the Benedictine abbeys, the second Benedict had commenced a new era of discipline and mortification. Cluny displayed this marvellous inward force, this reconstructing, reorganizing,

reanimating energy of monasticism. It furnished the line of German pontiffs to the papacy; it trained Hildebrand (see Gregory VII.) for the papal throne, and placed him upon it.

Colbert, Jean Baptiste, (1619–1683,) a celebrated French statesman, to whose talents, activity, and enlarged views, France owed much of her financial and commercial prosperity. Mazarin took him into his service, and his conduct recommended him to the king as intendant of the finances. He was made, soon after, comptroller-general of the finances. Subsequently he became superintendent of buildings, secretary of state, and, in 1669, minister of the marine; and in every capacity he acted so as to obtain the approbation of the king. To literature and the arts he constantly gave encouragement: he instituted the Academy of Sciences, and that of Sculpture and Painting; and it was at his recommendation that the Royal Observatory was erected. To him, too, Paris owed the erection of many noble buildings; and, if a less brilliant minister than some of his predecessors, he conferred more substantial benefits upon his country than most of them.

Columbus, (1435–1506.) Christopher Columbus was born near Genoa, about 1435. At fourteen he went to sea. After many voyages and adventures, he settled, about 1470, at Lisbon, which was then the great centre of maritime enterprise. There, as he pored over his maps, a grand idea began to take definite shape within his brain. He believed that it was possible to reach Asia by sailing westerly across the Atlantic; and his soul kindled within him as he felt that he was the man chosen by Heaven to carry the light of the cross into a new world beyond the western waves. After vainly seeking aid from Genoa, Portugal, and England, he at length obtained an introduction to Queen Isabella of Castile, and induced her to equip three vessels for a voyage of discovery. He set sail from Palos on the 2d of August, 1492; and after sailing for two months, was in imminent danger of losing the reward of all his study and toil, the variation of the needle having so much alarmed his men that they were on the point of breaking into open mutiny. He was obliged to promise that if three days produced no discovery he would commence his homeward voyage. On the third day they hove in sight of land, (Guanahani.) Columbus had the sweetest reward of his faith and enthusiasm, when he bent his knees in worship, not without tears, on the promised new land, on the 12th of October, 1492.

Comines, Philippe de, (1447–1511,) a great French historian. His "Mémoires" present a very vivid and authentic portraiture of the court of Louis XI., and of the principal events and general character of the age in which he lived.

Commodus, Lucius Aurelius, (161–192,) Roman Emperor, was the son of the wise and virtuous Marcus Aurelius. He was most carefully educated, and accompanied his father on several military expeditions. He succeeded him in 180 A. D., and after a short period of orderly government he dismissed his wisest counsellors, and gave himself up to the lowest society and the most shameless habits. The administration was in the hands of a series of his favorites, and confiscations and murders were the ordinary occurrences of the day. He went so far in defiance of decency as to fight in the circus as a gladiator, and then gave himself out for a god, and would be worshipped as Hercules. He was at last poisoned by a concubine, whom he intended to put to death; and then strangled by an athlete, A. D. 192. The vices and misgovernment of Commodus contributed powerfully to hasten the fall of the empire.

Condé, (1621–1686,) called the Great. His first achievement was the victory over the Spanish army at Rocroi, in 1643. After taking Dunkirk in 1646, Condé was, through envy, sent into Catalonia, where, with inferior troops, success forsook him. It was necessary soon to recall him to Flanders, where he won the victory of Sens over the Archduke Leopold in 1648. Having offended the first minister, Cardinal Mazarin, he was imprisoned more than a year, and after his liberation he led the army of the Fronde, began the siege of Paris, and encountered Turenne and the royalists in the Faubourg St. Antoine. Soon after, he entered the service of Spain, and contended with varying success against his countrymen in Flanders. After the Peace of the Pyrenees, he returned to Paris, and was employed in the conquest of Franche-Comté. His last great exploit was the victory over William, Prince of Orange, (William III.,) at Senef, in 1674. Martyr to the gout, he retired in the following year to his charming seat at Chantilly, enjoying there the society of some of the most eminent

men of letters; among them, Racine, Boileau, and Molière. There is a life of the great Condé by Lord Mahon. (See GENEALOGY, VII.)

Congress, first American. The British ministry imposed, in 1767, on the people of North America, a duty on tea, glass, and other articles. This act aroused the people, and they adopted measures for resisting the king and Parliament. In February, 1768, Massachusetts sent a circular to the colonies, asking their co-operation in obtaining a redress of grievances. There was a cordial response favorable to the circular from nearly every colony; and by common consent it was ordered that a congress of delegates from all the colonies should be called together. On the 5th of September, 1774, the First American Congress met at Carpenter's Hall, Philadelphia. Fifty-three delegates appeared, the ablest men in America, representing every colony but Georgia. It was a solemn meeting, for it involved the destiny of America. There was but one voice in the assembly, one feeling —never to submit. A petition was addressed to the king, whose infatuated course was flinging the brightest jewel from his crown; an appeal was made to the people of Great Britain, but preparation for the worst was not forgotten.

Constantine the Great, (272–337,) Roman Emperor. After defeating the Franks, he married Fausta, the daughter of Maximian, but he was soon involved in a war with his father-in-law, who assumed the title of emperor. The usurper's reign was brief; and, on his being taken prisoner, Constantine caused him to be strangled. This involved him in a war with Maxentius, son of Maximian, in which the latter was defeated, and drowned in the Tiber. It was during this war that the emperor saw a luminous cross in the heavens, with the inscription, "In hoc signo vinces," (Under this sign thou shalt conquer.) He accordingly caused a new standard to be made, surmounted by the monogram of the name of Christ; marched to Rome in triumph; and was declared by the senate Augustus and Pontifex Maximus, (High Priest.) In the following year the edict to stay the persecution of the Christians was published at Nicomedia. Constantine became, in 325, sole head of the Eastern and Western Empires, and his first care was the establishment of peace and order. He displayed great courage and love of justice, and professed an ardent zeal for the Christian religion. He made Byzantium the seat of empire, naming it anew, after himself, Constantinople. But though his actions on the whole entitled him to the surname of "The Great," many acts of cruelty, and, above all, the murder of his son Crispus, have left a stain upon his character, both as a man and a sovereign. Constantine died at Nicomedia, in May, 337, having been baptized only a few days before. His empire was divided between his three sons, Constantine, Constantius, and Constans. (See POPE SYLVESTER.)

Cook, Captain James, (1728–1779,) the celebrated English navigator. After various and arduous services, he was at length raised to the rank of lieutenant; and then commenced that series of voyages round the world, the details of which form one of the most popular and delightful books in our language. Captain Cook embarked on his first voyage as commander of the Endeavor, in August, 1768, reached New Holland (Australia) in 1770, and arrived in England in 1771. He set out on a third voyage, discovered the Sandwich Islands, explored the western coast of North America, and then made further discoveries in the Pacific. In spite of the utmost prudence and humanity, he was involved in a dispute with the natives of Owyhee, and, while endeavoring to reach his boats, was savagely murdered on St. Valentine's day, 1779.

Copernicus, Nicholas, (1473–1543,) the celebrated mathematician and founder of the modern system of astronomy. He studied the various systems of the ancient astronomers, compared them with each other, and applied himself to the construction of a system at once more simple and more symmetrical. The fruits of his researches appeared in his Latin treatise "On the Revolution of the Celestial Orbs," in which he represented the sun as occupying a centre round which the earth and the other planets revolve. His great work remained in MS. for thirteen years after he had completed it, so diffident was he as to the reception it might meet with; and it was only a few hours before his death that a printed copy was presented to him, giving him assurance that his opinions would see the light, though he would be beyond the reach of censure and persecution.

Corneille, Pierre, (1606–1684,) the greatest of French dramatic poets. His first dramatic piece was "Mèlité," a comedy, which met with such distinguished success that he was encouraged to devote his rare powers to the drama. The tragedies of "Medea," "The Cid," "The Horatii," and

"Cinna," followed, and established for their author a pre-eminent station among French dramatists. He wrote many other tragedies, and translated in verse Thomas à Kempis' "On the Imitation of Jesus Christ." He again turned to the drama, but his last works were unworthy of his name.

Cortez, Fernando, (1485–1554,) the conqueror of Mexico. In 1511, he went with Velasquez to Cuba, and the conquest of Mexico being determined upon, Cortez obtained the command of the expedition. In 1518, he set sail with 700 men in ten vessels; and on landing at Tabasco, he caused his vessels to be burned, in order that his soldiers might have no other resource than their own valor. Having conquered the Tlascalans, and induced them to become his allies, he marched toward Mexico, where he was amicably received; but having seized their monarch, Montezuma, and treated the people with the utmost insolence, the Mexicans first murmured, and then resisted. Cortez besieged the city of Mexico; and in the desperate struggle which ensued, it is said that upward of 100,000 of the faithful and unfortunate Mexicans were killed or perished by famine. Having reduced the city, Cortez completely conquered the Mexican territory, and made it a Spanish dependency.

Cranmer, Thomas, (1489–1556,) Archbishop of Canterbury, and memorable for the part he took in the Reformation. The opinion which he gave on the question of Henry VIII.'s divorce from his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, recommended him to the king, who employed him to vindicate the measure, and sent him, in 1530, with other envoys, to maintain his view before the Pope, Clement VII. He took with him the opinions which had been obtained from the foreign universities in favor of the same view. His mission was fruitless. After his return, he was raised by a papal bull to the archbishopric of Canterbury, in which office he zealously promoted the cause of the Reformation. Through his influence the Bible was translated and read in churches; and he greatly aided in the suppression of the monasteries. A few weeks after his appointment he pronounced, in a court held at Dunstable, the sentence of divorce of Catherine of Aragon, and confirmed the king's marriage with Anne Boleyn. In 1536, when Anne Boleyn was destined to lose her reputation and her life, Cranmer promoted the sentence of divorce. This and other compliances with the royal will insured him the support of Henry in all his contests with Bishop Gardiner and others, who accused him of heresy and faction. By Henry's will he was appointed one of the council of regency to Edward VI.; and, as the young king was brought up chiefly under the archbishop's care, it enabled him to further the objects of the Reformation. When Edward was prevailed on to alter the succession in favor of Lady Jane Grey, the archbishop unwillingly consented. On the accession of Mary, he was committed to the Tower, and convicted of high treason for his share in the proclamation of Lady Jane. Pardoned soon after, he was then convicted of heresy. He made many applications for pardon, and even signed a recantation of his principles. But when Cranmer was brought into church to read his recantation in public, he refused to do it, declaring that nothing could afford him consolation but the prospect of extenuating his guilt by encountering the fiery torments which awaited him. This greatly enraged his adversaries, who, after vilifying him as a hypocrite and heretic, dragged him to the stake opposite Baliol College, (Oxford.) The archbishop approached it with a cheerful countenance, and met his death with the utmost fortitude, exclaiming, as he thrust his right hand into the flames, "This unworthy hand! this unworthy hand!"

Cromwell, Oliver, (1599–1658,) Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, and one of the most extraordinary characters in history. His first appearance on the political arena was in the Parliament of 1629. In his parliamentary career he was remarkable rather for his business-like habits and energy of character than for elegance of language or gracefulness of delivery. He, notwithstanding, acquired considerable influence; and, in 1642, when it was resolved to levy forces to oppose the king, Cromwell received a commission. He soon distinguished himself by his courage and military skill, especially at the battle of Marston Moor, in 1644, and soon after won the decisive victory of Naseby, (1645.) In August, 1649, he was named "Lord Lieutenant and Commander-in-chief in Ireland," and subdued it. In consequence of the expected return of Prince Charles to Scotland, Cromwell was recalled. He was appointed lord general, and set out for Scotland. On the 3d of September, 1650, the great battle of

Dunbar was fought, and the Scots were totally defeated. Charles having marched into England, Cromwell followed him, and on the 3d of September, 1651, won the decisive battle of Worcester. Cromwell took up his residence at Hampton Court in the following month, and by the "instrument of government" he was created "Lord Protector." He showed himself equal to the hard task he had undertaken, making England greater and more honored than ever. At last, care, anxiety, and growing perplexities wore him out; he became gloomy and suspicious; was overwhelmed by sorrow at the death of his favorite daughter, (Lady Claypole;) fell sick, and died about a month after her, on the anniversary of his two victories of Dunbar and Worcester, (September 3d, 1658.)

Crusades, (1096–1273 A. D.) They were military expeditions undertaken by the Christian powers for the recovery of the Holy Land from the Mohammedans. The real Crusades were only three in number, and lasted hardly a century, (1096–1193 A. D.) After that time their real spirit was dead and gone. The war itself did not therefore end directly, but continued for nearly another century, with various intermissions. We may designate the Crusades as the foreign policy of the Papal Supremacy. So long as the throne of the Vatican predominated over and led the temporal powers of Europe, the occupants of that throne strove to direct the forces of that hemisphere upon the Syrian coast. But after the end of the 12th century, the Popes here experienced only failures or results contrary to their wishes. A large army of pilgrims slipped from the grasp of the most powerful of all the Popes, Innocent III., and, in the pay of the republic of Venice, conquered, in 1204, Constantinople, and founded the Latin Empire; but the only lasting gain was an enormous extension of Venetian commerce. The most dangerous enemy the papacy ever had, the Emperor Frederick II., sailed to Syria, pursued by the excommunication of Pope Gregory IX.; and while the clergy of Palestine shut their churches in his face, he obtained for the Christians, by a masterly stroke of diplomatic policy, the possession of the holy places; but he was forced to return home before he could complete the negotiation, in order to defend his kingdom of Naples against an attack from the papal troops, (1228 A. D.) Twenty years later, the Church once more beheld a Crusade after its own heart, when St. Louis, burning with holy ardor, led a French army against the sultan of Egypt. But, after a brief success, he allowed himself to be surrounded by his opponents in the flooded valley of the Nile; and the campaign ended in the capture of the whole crusading army. (See CRUSADES, Appendix, page 196.)

Culloden, Battle of, (April 16th, 1746.) Entire defeat of the Stuarts. In 1745 a last effort was made by the friends of the Stuarts. Prince Charles Edward, the son of the "Old Pretender," landed in Scotland. The Highlanders flocked around him. The city of Edinburgh, with the exception of the castle, was taken. Time, however, was lost while Charles kept his court at Edinburgh, and an opportunity was afforded of recalling the English troops from the continent. When, at length, the prince entered England, the Jacobites of the north hesitated to join him. At the head of less than 6,000 men he advanced as far as Derby; but at this important moment dissensions arose among his followers, and he was compelled to retire. Although threatened by two armies, the prince succeeded in reaching Scotland, and defeated the royal troops at Falkirk. Forced, however, to retreat, by the approach of the duke of Cumberland, he was pursued as far as Inverness, near which town, on the plain of Culloden, his troops were totally routed. The rebellion was cruelly punished, and for five months Charles Edward wandered among the mountains, until he succeeded in embarking for France, where he landed September 29th, 1746.

Cyril. See ST. CYRIL.

Cyrus, (550.) The monarchy of the Persians acquired, about 550 B. C., an unexampled extent of power in the countries of Western Asia. Cyrus, descended from an ancient family of Persian princes, had united several empires under his sway. Babylon fell during the silence of the night, as Daniel and Xenophon agree in relating, into the power of the Persians. The last of the Babylonian kings became soon afterward a captive, after his allies and vassal kings, as far as the Hellespont, had been subdued by many victories. Cyrus governed his conquests with wisdom and moderation. He is the prince whom the prophets of Israel celebrate. He is the king meant in the very remarkable prophecy relating to the destruction of Babylon and the restoration of the Jews, in Isaiah xliv. and xlv. In order to lessen the too great population of the newly conquered city, he sent

back the Jews from Babylon into their native country. Cyrus appears to have fought unsuccessfully against the hordes who wandered over the region to the northeast of the Caspian Sea. It ended in his death in battle. The Persians remembered their hero as a father, and erected a splendid tomb in his honor at Pasargadæ, the spot of his first victory. In its immediate neighborhood the city of Persepolis grew up. The tomb of Cyrus has perished, but numberless monuments in the neighborhood have preserved his name.

D.

Damiani, Pietro, (988–1072,) Cardinal, Bishop of Ostia, the great reformer of the 11th century, who, by his word and example, strove to bring back the Church to its pristine purity. He rendered important service to several popes, and was created cardinal, against his will, in 1057. His influence was very powerful, and he induced Benedict X., who was irregularly elected Pope, to resign in favor of Nicholas II. He supported Alexander II. against the emperor, and then retired, resigning his dignities. He was, however, several times drawn from his cell and sent on important missions to France, to Germany, and finally to Ravenna, to reestablish order after the excommunication of the archbishop. The fatigue of this mission was too much for his diminished strength, and he died at Faenza soon after his return, in 1072. His works consist of biographies of saints, sermons, and letters.

Dante, Alighieri, (1265–1321,) the great poet of Italy. When about ten years of age, he first saw, in the house of her father, Folco Portinari, the Beatrice whose beauty and goodness inspired him with a passion of admiring love, which became one of the most potent elements of his inner life, and the source of some of the sublimest and sweetest conceptions of his great poem. Beatrice died in 1290; and she then became to him a glorified ideal of wisdom and purity. In 1300 he was chosen chief magistrate of Florence, and from that period began his misfortunes and wanderings. Being banished from his country by the opposite faction, he found, after many wanderings, an asylum at Ravenna, and there he died, in 1321. Florence and all Italy then knew and mourned their loss. A splendid monument was erected to him at Ravenna, and copies of his works were multiplied, professorships instituted for expounding them, and voluminous commentaries written. Dante's great poem is entitled the "Divine Comedy," and in the form of a vision sets forth the mysteries of the invisible world, of Hell, Purgatory, and Paradise. It is the first great work of modern European literature, and stands alone as a creation of genius; "a mystic, unfathomable song," greatest always to the greatest. It has passed through innumerable editions, and has been translated over and over again into all European languages. Of English translations Cary's, in blank verse, and Dr. Carlyle's, in prose, are much esteemed. One of the most important additions to our Dante literature is Dr. Barlow's "Critical, Historical, and Philosophical Contributions to the Study of the Divina Commedia," published in 1864.

Darius. Morality and manners were low in the land of Iran during the reign of Cambyses, and men missed the arm of the ruler. This state of things was seized upon by the Median party, which had remained powerful in Iran. It declared the throne of Cyrus vacant, and caused a Median, who resembled the murdered Bartya, to be proclaimed as the younger son of Cyrus. About the same time Cambyses died, and this greatly contributed to strengthen the Median tenure of the throne. While the nations believed themselves ruled by a son of the great Cyrus, the Medians had despoiled his race of the sovereignty and removed the seat of the imperial government back to Media. The noble clans of the Persian nation, however, were not prepared to allow their right to the crown to be thus easily taken away from them. The heads of their seven clans met to consult. They were by birth the equals of one another, but, by his near relationship to Cyrus, the first among them was indubitably Hystaspes, the head of the younger line of the Achæmenidæ. He was already advanced in age, and accordingly resigned his own position in favor of his son Darius. This Darius succeeded in accomplishing the second foundation of the Persian monarchy, which was no less glorious than the first. The party of the Medians

was surprised and annihilated in their Median castle, and their empire destroyed; but a succession of arduous struggles was needed to restore unity to the whole empire. After about five years Darius could look upon his victory as complete, and erect a grand monument in memory of it on the high road from Babylon to Susa. The monument of Bagistana is of great significance for Greek as well as for Asiatic history. It marks the return to the old policy of the Achæmenidæ, which could not leave the subjection of the Greeks, begun by Cyrus, a work half done. The triumph of Darius announced the approaching struggle between Hellenes and barbarians, or, as had now come to be the settled distinction, between Asia and Europe. It broke out 16 years after the erection of the monument, (500 B. C.) (See "Expedition of Darius," "Ionian Revolt," "Persian History," Appendix, pages 172, 173.)

David, (about 1000 B. C.) After the Hebrew nation had obtained possession of Palestine, they showed, by a striking example, how difficult it is for men to adhere to simplicity and truth. The Hebrews had not sufficient wisdom and fortitude to adhere to the faith of the patriarchs. When the consequences of these defections were experienced, illustrious champions arose, who delivered Israel from bondage; but their exploits produced a transient effect, which perished with those who achieved them. The nation, seeking the cause of their misfortunes, not in themselves, but in the imperfection of their government, resolved at length to choose for themselves kings. The second of their monarchs, David, full of energy in the pursuit both of good and evil, was magnanimous enough to acknowledge his errors; and, combining with exalted virtues and great talents a fine genius for poetical composition, and a soul endowed with noble sentiments, he gained an illustrious name in the catalogue of heroes and sages. David possessed all the country from the Euphrates to the confines of Egypt. He concluded an alliance with the Phœnicians, and made Jerusalem a splendid capital. The Mosaic institutions obtained through him a more expressive moral interpretation. The exalted soul of David foresaw a happier age, when a more lasting and glorious throne should be raised on the foundations of Israel. The faith of the people looked for their champion from his house, for it was seen that everything prospered in his hands — that God was with him. His own age and that of his son Solomon comprise the most glorious period of Hebrew literature. The Psalms are the finest flowers of Hebrew poetry. They are the outpourings from a heart under the influence of lofty inspiration. They are designed, not for the amusement of the idle, but for the necessities of the soul which is suffering under the pressure of affliction.

Decian Persecution. The Decian persecution, which broke out in A. D. 249, is the first example of a deliberate attempt, supported by the whole machinery of provincial government, and extended over the entire surface of the empire, to extirpate Christianity from the world. It would be difficult to find language too strong to paint its horrors. The ferocious instincts of the populace, that were long repressed, burst out anew, and they were not only permitted, but encouraged by the rulers. Far worse than the deaths which menaced those who shrank from the idolatrous sacrifices were the hideous and prolonged tortures by which the magistrates thought to subdue the constancy of the martyr. The Decian persecution was adorned by many examples of extreme courage and devotion, displayed in not a few cases by those who were physically among the frailest of mankind. Horrible tortures were continually employed to extort an apostasy; and when those tortures proved vain, great numbers were ultimately released. The Decian persecution is remarkable in Christian archæology as being the first occasion in which the Christian catacombs were violated. These vast subterranean corridors, lined with tombs and expanding very frequently into small chapels adorned with paintings, often of no mean beauty, had for a long period been an inviolable asylum in seasons of persecution. The extreme sanctity which the Romans were accustomed to attach to the place of burial repelled the profane, and as early, it is said, as the very beginning of the third century, the catacombs were recognized as legal possessions of the Church; and, as a last resort, the catacombs proved a refuge from the persecutors. The reign of Decius only lasted about two years, and before its close the persecution had almost ceased.

Declaration of Independence. The Virginia Legislature had recommended Congress to declare the colonies absolved from their allegiance to the crown. On the 7th of June, 1776, Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, moved that "these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, *free and independent states.*" Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger

Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston were appointed a committee to draft a Declaration of Independence. Jefferson, as chairman, prepared the important document. It was reported to Congress, and discussed several days. Mr. Dickinson, of Pennsylvania, stated his objections in a last speech of much force, which, fortunately, however, failed to convince his hearers. It was finally adopted, at two o'clock on the 4th of July, 1776.

Defoe, Daniel, (1663–1731,) a celebrated political and miscellaneous writer, author of "Robinson Crusoe." He took an eager interest in politics, and began his career as an author at the age of nineteen. His attempts at business were unsuccessful, and he gave himself up entirely to political authorship. His health being seriously injured by harassing political warfare and persecutions, he found it necessary to choose a less exciting employment for his pen, and during the latter years of his life he published the works of fiction by which he is now best known. "Robinson Crusoe" appeared in 1719, and obtained immediately the popularity which it has never lost. This famous book had been preceded by the "Family Instructor," and "Religious Courtship," and was followed by the "Adventures of Captain Singleton," "Fortunes of Moll Flanders," "History of the Plague," and a host of other works. One of his most successful books was "The True-born Englishman," which appeared in 1701, and procured him an audience of William III.

Democritus, (460–357 B. C.) One of the most celebrated Greek philosophers, was born at Abdera. After having travelled through Egypt, Chaldæa, and other Eastern countries, he returned to Abdera, and devoted himself wholly to philosophical studies. His grand axiom was that the greatest good consists in a tranquil mind. He has been called "the laughing philosopher," (in contrast to the weeping Heraclitus,) which epithet probably originated in his practice of humorously exposing the absurdities of his countrymen, whose stupidity was proverbial.

Demosthenes, (385–322 B. C.) In Athens lived, about 350 B. C., the orator Demosthenes, whom nature seems to have bestowed upon the Greeks in order to foretell all the calamities with which their neglect of the common good and corruption of their principles and manners could not fail to overwhelm them. They heard him as the Trojans heard Cassandra. He had become one of the leading statesmen of Athens, and from that time the history of his life is closely mixed up with that of his country; for there is no question affecting the public good in which he did not take the most active part, and support with all the power of his oratory what he considered right and beneficent to the state. He was the only person who had the honesty and the courage openly to express his opinions, and to call upon the Greeks to unite their strength against the common foe, Philip of Macedon. His patriotic feelings and convictions against Macedonian aggrandizement are the groundwork of his Philippics, a series of the most splendid and spirited orations. His career as a statesman received its greatest lustre from these oratorical powers. The obstacles which his physical constitution threw in his way, when he commenced his career, were so great that a less courageous and persevering man than Demosthenes would at once have been intimidated, and entirely shrunk from the arduous career of a public orator. Those early difficulties with which he had to contend, led him to bestow more care upon the composition of his orations than he would otherwise have done, and produced in the end, if not the impossibility of speaking extempore, at least the habit of never venturing upon it; for he never spoke without preparation, and he sometimes even declined speaking when called upon in the assembly to do so, merely because he was not prepared for it. The ancients state that there existed sixty-five orations of Demosthenes, but of these only sixty have come down to us under his name.

De Vega. See VEGA.

De Vinci. See VINCI.

De Vinea. See VINEA.

De Witt, John, (1625–1672.) A distinguished statesman, who after 1653 directed the councils of the Dutch Republic. At the time of his election, he was only twenty-five years of age, but he had already displayed all the best qualities of a statesman. Although public feeling at that time was very much inflamed against England, De Witt did not hesitate to stem the popular current, and to conclude, in 1654, a peace with Cromwell, one article of which excluded the House of Orange from the supreme magistracy (the stadtholdership) of the republic. Four years later he procured the

passing of the "*perpetual edict,*" by which the office of stadtholder was for ever abolished. Every city was governed by its own magistracy, and the affairs of the whole community were administered by the States-General. The manners of the people were republican. John de Witt, the grand-pensionary of Holland, who had the chief influence in the commonwealth, lived like a private citizen, attended by only a single servant. The admiral De Ruyter, one of the greatest naval heroes of that time, was never seen in a carriage; but was observed, on returning from a naval victory, to carry his own carpet-bag from the vessel to his home. Notwithstanding all this moderation, the affairs of the republic were not prosperously conducted; because, in the appointment to public offices, more regard was paid to the families than to the qualifications of the candidates. The military spirit was lost in the pursuits of commerce, and nothing remained of the ancient victories but the bare remembrance of them; by which Holland was so dazzled that it ventured to offend even Louis XIV. And when, in consequence of this, it was invaded by Louis in 1672, with an army of more than 80,000 men, it was found so entirely unprepared, that within four weeks the country was in the possession of the French. The blame of all this fell upon John de Witt, the leading statesman of the commonwealth. His policy had brought the commonwealth to the verge of destruction, and he had to pay for it with his life. Both John and his brother Cornelis were most barbarously murdered by the populace at the Hague, (August 20th, 1672.) Thus miserably perished the noble John de Witt, who had swayed the councils of the Dutch Republic during a period of twenty years, with honest and single-minded patriotism, if not, in the last eventful crisis, with a wise and successful policy; while his brother Cornelis had sustained its honor upon the seas with bravery and reputation. Their murder may not be directly imputable to the Prince of Orange, (who was now raised to the chief magistracy of the republic;) but he, at least, accepted it, and made himself an accessory after the fact, by protecting and rewarding the assassins.

Diocletianus, (245–313,) Roman Emperor. He entered the Roman army, distinguished himself during several reigns, and was elected emperor by the soldiers, on the death of Numerian, 284. Two years later, to strengthen himself against the numerous enemies threatening the empire both in the east and the west, he made Maximian his associate, assigning to him the charge of the west. A further division was afterward made by the creation of two Cæsars, Constantius Chlorus, and Galerius, four emperors thus reigning at one time. War was almost continually going on, but Diocletian seldom took any personal share in it. In the latter part of his reign he was induced to sanction a cruel persecution of the Christians, whom he had long protected. In 305 Diocletian abdicated the imperial dignity, and retired to his native country.

Diogenes, Laertius, (200 A. D.,) a Greek historian, who wrote the "Lives of the Philosophers," in ten books, an immethodical and uncritical work, valuable, as such books often are, for the fragments they contain of earlier writings which have perished. He is supposed to have lived in the second century.

Directory, The, (Oct. 27th, 1795 – Dec. 15th, 1799.) Three different Assemblies ruled France since the beginning of the great Revolution in 1789: I. The Constituent National Assembly, 1789–1791; II. The Legislative Assembly, 1791–1792; III. The National Convention, 1792–1795. This last assembly, so fatally memorable in French history, broke up on the 26th of October, after a continuous session of three years and two months. It had finished its task of preparing a constitution for France. This constitution placed the legislative power in two councils, that of the Five Hundred, and that of the Ancients; while the executive power was intrusted to a Directory of five members. It re-established the two degrees of election, and made it necessary for a man to possess a certain amount of property before he could become a member either of the primary or electoral assemblies. The initiative in the proposal of laws was given to the Five Hundred; and the power of either passing or rejecting them resided in the Council of the Ancients. The first consisted of five hundred members, who were thirty years old at least, and the second of two hundred and fifty, who were over forty years of age. The five Directors were chosen by the two councils. Each of the Directors was president for three months, during which he possessed the seals. Each year the Directory was renewed by a new member. It had a guard, and was lodged in the Palace of the Luxembourg. The chief glory of this Directory was

that derived from the brilliant successes of Bonaparte in Italy. (See NAPOLEON.)

Domitianus, Titus Flavius, (51–96,) Roman Emperor, the second son of Vespasian, and the last of the twelve Cæsars, was born A. D. 51, and succeeded his brother Titus in 81. He was profligate, cruel, and malignant; and though at his accession he made some show of justice, he was soon both feared and hated for his tyranny. Wars were carried on in his reign in Britain, in Germany, and in Dacia, but, except in Britain, unsuccessfully. Agricola, who achieved the conquest of Great Britain in this reign, excited the jealousy of Domitian, and was recalled to Rome. He was in continual dread of conspirators, and at length fell by the hands of an assassin, in the 45th year of his age.

Dost Mohammed. See MOHAMMED.

Drake, Sir Francis, (1545–1596,) an eminent navigator and commander. He sailed, in 1577, to attack the Spaniards in the South Seas. In this expedition he ravaged the Spanish settlements, explored the North American coast as far as 48° north latitude, and gave the name of New Albion to the country he had discovered. He then went to the East Indies, and, having doubled the Cape of Good Hope, returned to Plymouth in 1580. In 1587 he commanded a fleet of 30 sail, with which he entered the harbor of Cadiz and other Spanish ports, and destroyed an immense number of ships which were preparing for the great attack on England; and in the following year he commanded as vice-admiral under Lord Howard, and had his share in the destruction of the Spanish armada.

Dryden, John, (1631–1700,) one of the most celebrated English poets. In 1657 he came to London, and acted as secretary to his relation, Sir Gilbert Pickering, who was one of Cromwell's council, and, on the death of the Protector, he wrote his well-known stanzas on that event. At the Restoration, however, he greeted Charles II. with a poem, entitled "Astræa Redux," which was quickly followed by a panegyric on the coronation, and from that time his love for the royal house of Stuart appears to have known no decay. In 1667 he published his "Annus Mirabilis," (see this;) and his reputation, both as a poet and a royalist, being now established, he was appointed poet-laureate and historiographer royal, with a salary of £200 per annum. In 1681 he commenced his career of political satire; and at the express desire of Charles II. composed his famous poem of "Absalom and Achitophel." At the accession of James II., Dryden became a Roman Catholic, and, like most converts, endeavored to defend his new faith at the expense of the old one, in a poem called "The Hind and the Panther," which was ridiculed by Prior and Montague, in the "Country Mouse and City Mouse." The abdication of James deprived Dryden of all his official emoluments; and during the ten concluding years of his life, when he actually wrote for bread, he produced some of the finest pieces of which our language can boast. His translation of Virgil, which alone would be sufficient to immortalize his memory, appeared in 1697, and, soon after, that masterpiece of lyric poetry, "Alexander's Feast," his "Fables," etc. The freedom, grace, strength, and melody of his versification have never been surpassed; and in satire he stands unrivalled; but as a dramatic writer he does not excel.

Dschingis, Khan. See GENGIS-KHAN.

Duilius, C., was Consul in B. C. 260. In that year the coast of Italy was repeatedly ravaged by the Carthaginians, against whom the Romans could do nothing, as they were yet without a navy. The Romans then built their first fleet of one hundred ships, using for their models a Carthaginian vessel which had been thrown on the coast of Italy. Duilius obtained the command of this fleet; who, perceiving the disadvantages under which the clumsy ships of the Romans were laboring, invented the grappling-irons, by means of which the enemy's ships were drawn toward his, so that the sea-fight was, as it were, changed into a land-fight. When Duilius was informed that the Carthaginians were ravaging the coast of Myle in Sicily, he sailed thither with his whole armament. The battle which ensued off Myle, and near the Liparian Islands, ended in a glorious victory of the Romans, which they mainly owed to their grappling-irons. On his return to Rome, Duilius celebrated a splendid triumph, for it was the first naval victory that they had ever gained, and the memory of it was perpetuated by a column which was erected in the Forum, and adorned with the beaks of the conquered ships. Rome had suddenly become a naval power, and held in her hands the means of energetically terminating a war which threatened to be endlessly prolonged, and to involve the commerce of Italy

in ruin. The Roman fleet, with its unwielding grandeur, was the noblest creation of genius in this war, and, as in 269, its beginning, so at its close, it was the fleet that turned the scale in favor of Rome. (See FIRST PUNIC WAR, Appendix, page 187.)

Dürer, Albert, (1471–1528,) the greatest of the early German painters and engravers. He was appointed painter to the Emperor Maximilian I., an office which he also held under Charles V. Dürer was very celebrated as an engraver both on wood and metal; he also invented, or far surpassed others in etching. Among his best paintings are "Christian Martyrs in Persia," "Adoration of the Holy Trinity," "St. John and St. Peter," "St. Paul and St. Mark," and several portraits.

Dutch William. See WILLIAM III.

E.

Edict of Nantes, (1598–1685 A. D.) Henry IV., the first of the Bourbon kings of France, issued, in 1598, the celebrated *Edict of Nantes*, which fixed the rights of the Protestants in France. This edict granted to the Protestants the exercise of their religion; it certified to them admission to all employments, established in each parliament a chamber composed of magistrates of each religion, tolerated the general assemblies of the reformers, authorizing them to raise taxes among themselves for the wants of their Church; lastly, it indemnified their ministers and granted them places of safety, the principal of which was La Rochelle. The Protestants were compelled to pay tithes, and to observe the holy days of the Catholic Church. The Edict of Nantes, registered by the parliaments after long resistance, put an end to the disastrous wars which for thirty-six years had desolated the kingdom. It was revoked in 1685 by Louis XIV. This revocation interdicted, throughout the whole kingdom, the exercise of the reformed religion, ordered all its ministers to leave the kingdom within a fortnight, and enjoined parents and tutors to bring up the children in their care in the Catholic religion. Emigration on the part of the Protestants was prohibited under pain of the galleys and confiscation of property; Catholic preachers traversed the towns peopled by Protestants, and in the places where these missionaries were unable to effect conversions, the secular arm was called in to effect them by force. Frequently, before the issue of this decree, dragoons had been sent to obstinate Protestants with permission to act toward them with every imaginable license, until they had become converted. Innumerable and atrocious acts of violence were committed against them, those who resisted being condemned to the gibbet or the gallows; while their ministers were broken alive. A hundred thousand industrious families escaped from France; and the foreign nations, which received them with open arms, became enriched by their industry, at the expense of their native country.

Edward III., (1312–1377,) King of England, eldest son of Edward II., succeeded to the throne, on the deposition of his father, in 1327, and three years later assumed the government. In 1333, Edward invaded Scotland, which had been nominally subjected to England by Edward Baliol; besieged Berwick, and defeated the regent at Halidon Hill. The greater war with France soon withdrew his attention from Scotland. He assumed the title of king of France, (see GENEALOGY, III.,) in the right of his mother Isabella, and invaded the country. In 1346, he won the great victory of Crecy, and took Calais (see this) in 1347. In 1356, Edward, the Black Prince, invaded France, and gained the victory of Poitiers, taking the French king and his son prisoners. The king was released after four years, on the conclusion of the peace of Bretigny, in which France, slowly but surely, regained her ascendency, so that the only places left to the English in France, in 1374 A. D., were Calais, Bayonne, and Bordeaux. The long wars of Edward III., though almost fruitless of practical result, appear to have been popular; and his numerous parliaments granted liberal supplies for carrying them on, gaining in return confirmations of the Great and other charters, and many valuable concessions. His victories raised the spirit and also the fame of his country, and with the evident military power of England grew also her commerce and manufactures.

Edward, (1330–1376,) Prince of Wales, surnamed the Black Prince, son of Edward III. Accompanying his father to France, in 1346, he took a leading part in gaining the victory of Crecy; and ten years later he crowned his military career in the great battle of Poitiers, when he took King John and his son prisoners, and distinguished himself as much by his courtesy to his captives as he had in the field by his valor. Soon after he was created by his father prince of Aquitaine. Bordeaux then became the seat of his government. In 1367 he went to the assistance of Pedro the Cruel, king of Castile, who had been dethroned by his brother, Henry of Trastamare. The latter was defeated, and Pedro re-established, but only for a short time. Prince Edward was soon after involved in disputes with his subjects, which occasioned the renewal of war between France and England, in which England lost nearly all her French possessions. He died aged forty-five.

Eginhard, a celebrated historian of the ninth century. He was a pupil of Alcuin, and entered the service of Charlemagne as secretary or chancellor. He was also made superintendent of the emperor's buildings, and continued to hold his offices under Louis the Pious. About 816 he retired to a monastery, and some years later converted his own house into an abbey. He died about 850. Eginhard left an important and very valuable historical work, "The Life of the Most Glorious Emperor Charles the Great," (Charlemagne.) We have also his "Annals of the Kings of the Franks from 741–829," and a collection of letters of great interest and value.

Egypt. See Appendix, page 169.

Elagabalus, (205–222,) Roman Emperor. Early made a priest of the sun, worshipped under the name of Elagabalus, he was afterward known by that name. He was proclaimed emperor in Syria in 218, and received the title of M. Aurelius Antoninus. He arrived at Rome in the following year; abandoned himself to the grossest profligacy, superstitions, and prodigality; and, after four years, was massacred with his mother by the prætorians, and his body was dragged through the city and thrown into the Tiber. His cousin, Alexander Severus, whom he had adopted and made Cæsar, succeeded him.

Elector, (the Great.) See FREDERICK WILLIAM.

Elijah the Tishbite has been well entitled "the grandest and the most romantic character that Israel ever produced." Certainly there is no personage in the Old Testament whose career is more vividly portrayed, or who exercises on us a more remarkable fascination. His rare, sudden, and brief appearance; his undaunted courage and fiery zeal; the brilliancy of his triumphs, the pathos of his despondency, the glory of his departure, and the calm beauty of his reappearance on the Mount of Transfiguration, throw such a halo of brightness around him as is equalled by none of his compeers in the sacred story. How deep was the impression which he made on the mind of the nation may be judged of from the fixed belief which many centuries after prevailed that Elijah would again appear, for the relief and restoration of his country. What it had grown to at the time of our Lord's birth, and how continually the great prophet was present to the expectations of the people, is patent on every page of the Gospels. Elijah has been canonized in both the Greek and Latin churches. Among the Greeks, Mar Elijas is the patron of elevated spots, and many a conspicuous summit in Greece is called by his name. In the Mohammedan traditions, Elijah is said to have drunk of the fountain of life, "by virtue of which he still lives, and will live to the day of judgment." The Persian sofis are said to trace themselves back to Elijah.

English Revolution of 1688, by which William and Mary were raised to the throne of England, which had become vacant by the flight of James II. William III., stadtholder of the Netherlands, and prince of Orange, himself the grandson, through his mother, of Charles I., (see GENEALOGY I.,) had married Mary, the eldest daughter of James. In the absence of a male heir to the throne, William had long looked forward to the probable acquisition of the English crown by right of his wife, as the solution of the existing troubles. The birth of a prince of Wales, June 10th, 1688, presented an obstacle to the attainment of this object; and, while publicly congratulating his father-in-law on the birth of a son, William instructed his envoy in England to foment the growing discontent. Carefully concealing his projects till they were ready to be executed, William made his preparations. James, though warned by Louis XIV., for some time refused to distrust the intentions of his son-in-law, and even when the alliance of Louis was offered it was declined. The object of William, however, could

not long be concealed. Open disaffection broke out in London, and James sought too late to regain by concessions the confidence of his subjects. After publishing a declaration of the reasons of his conduct, William sailed from Holland, and landed at Torbay, (5th November.) With 15,000 men he marched to Exeter. At first few joined him, and he even thought of abandoning his enterprise; but the defection from the royal cause of Lord Churchill and other officers emboldened him to proceed. Plymouth was placed in his hands by its governor, the earl of Bath. Deserted at this juncture by his children and courtiers, James, who had lately returned from the headquarters of the army at Salisbury, attempted to leave England in disguise, throwing the Great Seal in the water as he passed over the Thames. Interrupted in his flight at Feversham, he was brought again to the capital, which he entered amid acclamations. The first act of the prince under these circumstances was to arrest Lord Feversham, who was sent with proposals for a conference; his next, to take possession of the palace of Whitehall. James was in a few hours ordered to leave London, and was escorted by Dutch troops to Rochester. After four days, he again resolved on flight, and left for France, where he arrived on Christmas day. The ex-king died at St. Germains, 16th September, 1701.

Epaminondas. After the humiliation of Athens, the Spartans were the absolute masters of Greece. But it was soon discovered that, instead of the freedom promised by them, only another empire had been established; and the many oppressions which the allies had to undergo were rendered still more intolerable by the overweening pride and harshness of the Spartan commanders. During the general depression caused by the harsh conduct of Sparta, Epaminondas arose at Thebes, which is the chief town of Bœotia, situated in a fruitful plain at the foot of Mount Cithæron. In the confidence of peace, a Spartan general, by a bold stratagem, had gained possession of the Theban citadel. The seizure was declared unjust at Sparta, but nevertheless Sparta had continued to keep it in possession. The most resolute citizens of Thebes, who denounced this outrage, were exiled from the town. These exiles, led by Pelopidas, had the good fortune to deliver their country from the Spartans. From that moment the Thebans sought to destroy the abused power of haughty Sparta. They would not have attained this object by the numerical force of their armies, if Epaminondas had not been able to conquer them by his superior strategy. At Leuctra (371) fell the flower of the Spartan youth, and they lost forever the prize of the Peloponnesian war — the sovereignty of Greece. A second victory at Mantinea (362) established the fame of Epaminondas forever, and completed the ruin of the Spartan power. The Theban general finished his career by an heroic death. On that account this day was calamitous even to those whom it crowned with victory. No general ever before arranged the order of battle on principles so scientific, or carried the art of war to such perfection. Epaminondas was, moreover, a noble and virtuous citizen, magnanimous toward his ungrateful country, modest and mild in character, warm in friendship, a lover of philosophy, and a most accomplished man.

Epicurus, (B. C. 342–B. C. 270,) Greek philosopher, founder of the Epicurean school, about B. C. 306 settled at Athens, and, in a garden which he bought there, opened his school of philosophy. The fundamental doctrine of Epicurus in morals is that pleasure is the sovereign good. He taught that this must be sought by the aid of reason, that prudence is the first of virtues, and that moral excellence is only of value as conducing to pleasure. He denied the immortality of the soul, and asserted the existence of the gods, their perfect repose, and their indifference to human affairs. Although his system too easily lent itself to the justification of a sensual life, Epicurus obtained the praise even of his adversaries for the simple, pure, and manly life he himself led. The great poem of Lucretius, "De Rerum Natura," is an exposition of the system of this philosopher.

Erasmus, Desiderius, one of the most eminent scholars of his age, was born at Rotterdam, 1467. When he was only 14 years old he was left an orphan, and the heir of a moderate fortune. The guardians, desiring to appropriate it to themselves, endeavored to force him into a convent. He was obliged to yield. This misfortune did not check Erasmus's intellectual growth. He taught himself Greek, when Greek was the language which, in the opinion of the monks, only the devil spoke in the bad place. His Latin was as polished as Cicero's; and at length the archbishop of Cambray heard of him, and sent him to the university of Paris. Here he made the acquaintance of two English noblemen, who carried him over to England, and introduced him at the court of Henry VII. At once his fortune was made. Money flowed in upon him, and the great Wolsey

himself recognized and welcomed the rising star of literature. Shortly after, when the brilliant Leo succeeded to the tiara, Erasmus was invited to visit him at Rome, and become another star in the constellation which surrounded the papal throne. He was now in the zenith of his greatness. The breadth of his culture, his clear understanding, and the worldly moderation of his temper, seemed to qualify him above all living men to conduct a temperate reform; and he resolved to devote the remainder of his life to the introduction of a higher tone in the mind of the clergy. During the latter part of his life he lived chiefly in Basel, where he vigorously continued his literary labors, and prepared his edition of the New Testament, and his celebrated "Colloquia," which latter gave such offence to the monks that they used to say, "Erasmus laid the egg that Luther hatched." Erasmus died in 1536.

Eratosthenes, (240 B. C.), next to Aristotle the most illustrious of Greek scholars, was especially distinguished as the first and greatest critical investigator of Egyptian antiquity. His researches were undertaken by command of the king, consequently with every advantage that royal patronage could procure for the investigation from the Egyptian priests. We are indebted to Georgius Syncellus, Vice-Patriarch of Constantinople, (800 A. D.,) for the preservation of his labors, though only in the form of a miserable epitome containing a list of kings.

Espartero, Don Baldomero, Duke of Victory, Marshal, and at one time Regent of Spain, was born at Granada, in 1792. The youngest of the nine children of a cartwright, he was intended for the priesthood; but in 1808, when the French invaded Spain, he enrolled himself as a volunteer. Upon the expulsion of Napoleon from Spain, he joined General Morillo in the South American colonies. He returned to Spain, and in 1833, when Ferdinand VII. died, took a decided part in favor of his daughter, Isabella II.; and in 1841 became regent of Spain, and governed the country with a fair share of success. In 1843, he was compelled to retire. But in 1854, Queen Isabella commissioned him to resume the direction of affairs, in conjunction with General O'Donnell; but his government encountered great difficulties in the corruption of the court and of the administrative departments, in the hostility of the clergy, and the fickleness of its own professed supporters. At length, in the summer of 1856, matters came to a crisis. General Espartero was dismissed, and insurrections broke out in Madrid, Barcelona, and Saragossa; but he took no part in the quarrels made in his name, and again lost one of the most brilliant positions that fortune or military prestige could offer.

Euclid, the celebrated mathematician, flourished at Alexandria, about B. C. 300. He immortalized his name by his books on geometry, in which he digested all the propositions of the eminent geometricians who preceded him, Thales, Pythagoras, and others. Ptolemy became his pupil, and his school was so famous that Alexandria continued for ages the great resort of mathematicians. His "Elements" have been translated into most languages. They have held their ground for 2000 years as the basis of geometrical instruction wherever the light of science has reached.

Eugène, François, (1663–1736,) of Savoy, known as Prince Eugène, a distinguished military commander. He was intended for the Church; but his predilection for a military life was so strong, that, on being refused a regiment in the French army, he entered the service of the emperor, as a volunteer against the Turks; and his bravery attracting notice, he was soon appointed to the command of a regiment of dragoons. He was afterward placed at the head of the army of Hungary; and so highly did Louis XIV. think of his abilities that he offered him a marshal's staff, a pension, and the government of Champagne; but these he indignantly refused. He was the companion in arms of the great duke of Marlborough, and participated in the victories of Blenheim, Oudenarde, etc. He routed the Turks at Peterwardein in 1716, and compelled Belgrade to surrender, after inflicting on them another ruinous defeat. After the peace in 1718, he retired to private life, and spent his time in cultivating and patronizing the arts, till he was again, in 1733, called into the field as commander on the Rhine. He died, aged seventy-two, in 1736.

Euripides, born in the midst of war's alarms, (on the day of the battle of Salamis,) knew nothing about them until they were over, and the ordinary tone of thought and feeling had resumed its sway. Philosophical speculation occupied his mind more than the inspiration of natural glory. He lowered the character of tragedy from the stately heights of Æschylus and Sophocles. But this abatement of the lofty bearing of tragedy brought it more within the common apprehension; and so it has happened that

more of his pieces have come down to us than of both the others together. Several of his characters are among the first of poetical creations, especially "Medea" and "Alcestis." Euripides lived on the confines of two great periods. He was able to destroy the ancient tragedy, but unable to create the modern. He was the first and chief apostle of that new cosmopolitan humanity which broke up the old Attic national life, and the more the old Hellas gave place to the new Hellenism, the more the fame and influence of the poet increased; and Greek life abroad, in Egypt as well as in Rome, was directly or indirectly moulded by Euripides.

European Revolution of 1848. The attempts of Louis Philippe to render himself independent of the French nation, and the closeness of his political connection with the absolute European powers, had rendered it impossible for him to obtain a majority in the Chambers except by bribery; and as this could only be effected as long as the number of electors was limited, he resisted, with his usual obstinacy, every proposal for the extension of the franchise. This policy disgusted all who looked to a reformed system of election as the only means of improving the administration, and greatly increased the numbers of the moderate republican party. An order of the government for the suppression of reform dinners, and an attempt to prevent the holding of a reform banquet at Paris, provoked the opposition party to impeach the cabinet. The motion was carried in the Chamber of Deputies, and the Guizot administration was dismissed on the 23d of February, 1848. Tranquillity seemed now to be completely restored; but, on the evening of the same day, fresh disturbances broke out, in consequence of some troops having fired on the unarmed populace. Throughout the whole of that night the inhabitants of Paris were occupied in constructing barricades. The king, alarmed at this, abdicated in favor of his grandson, the Count of Paris, and left Paris. Hereupon a provisional government was established, which proclaimed the republic. The intelligence of this soon spread to Europe, which was everywhere teeming with political discontent and agitation. The first effects of this intelligence manifested themselves in the frontier states of Baden and Hesse-Darmstadt, and spread soon through the whole of Europe. In most of the smaller states, the transition from the old to the new state of things was accomplished with comparative facility, while in Austria and Prussia the attempts of the reform party produced the most fearful convulsions. Europe was thus once more given up to every species of danger, until, in accordance with the inflexible law of history, anarchy produced masters, who called the nations to order by the voice of the cannon's mouth. (App., pp. 219–224.)

Eusebius Pamphili, (264–340), ecclesiastical historian. In the persecution by Diocletian, he assisted the suffering Christians by his exhortations, particularly his friend Pamphilus, whose name, out of veneration, he assumed. Eusebius was chosen bishop of Cæsarea, about 315. He was the friend of Arius, but nevertheless assisted at the Council of Nice. The Emperor Constantine had a particular esteem for him, and showed him many tokens of favor. He wrote an "Ecclesiastical History," the "Life of Constantine," etc. An English translation of the Ecclesiastical History forms part of Bohn's Library.

Evangelical Union. The German Protestant princes had, in 1603, entered into an alliance at Heidelberg to protect themselves from the innovations daily made by Austria and Bavaria, and convened an assembly at Ahausen. Here the elector palatine, Frederick IV., and Christian of Anhalt, who had summoned the meeting, were met by Joachim Ernest and Christian, the two margraves of Brandenburg-Anspach and Brandenburg-Culmbach, together with the count palatine, Philip Louis of Neuburg, and the duke John Frederick of Würtemberg; and they formed, for a period of ten years, a defensive alliance, which obtained the name of Evangelical Union. By the Act of Union, the allies agreed to provide an army and a common chest; and they named the elector palatine to be their director in time of peace, but in case of war, any prince whose territory should be attacked, when the general affairs of the Union were to be directed by a council of war. At subsequent meetings, the margrave Joachim Ernest was appointed general of the Union out of the territories of the allied princes, with Christian of Anhalt for his lieutenant. The Union was eventually joined by fifteen imperial cities, including Strasburg, Ulm, and Nuremberg, by the landgrave Maurice of Hesse, and by John Sigismund, the new elector of Brandenburg. This alliance on the part of the Protestants provoked a counter one of the Catholics, organized by Maximilian of Bavaria. At his invitation, the plenipotentiaries of the bishops of Würzburg, Constance, Augsburg, Passau, Ratisbon, and other

prelates assembled at Munich, in July, 1609, and the Catholic states of the circles of Suabia and Bavaria agreed to enter into an alliance which afterward obtained the name of the Holy League. The alliance purported to be only a defensive one; but, in case of need, great powers were intrusted to Maximilian as its director, who had raised a little standing army, under the command of Baron Tilly, already notorious by the cruelties which, in the service of the emperor, he had committed against the Protestants. In August the League was joined by the three spiritual electors; and subsequently an alliance was made with the Pope, and subsidies demanded from Spain. Thus the great religious parties of Germany were formally arrayed against each other: for open violence nothing was wanting but the occasion, and this was afforded by a dispute which arose respecting the succession to the duchy of Juliers. (See CLEVE SUCCESSION, Appendix, page 200.)

F.

Fall of the Fatimites, (680 A. D.) The Fatimites are the descendants of Fatima, the daughter of Mohammed and her cousin and husband Ali, "the first of the witnesses," who at length, in 656, was proclaimed caliph; (he was the fourth; his predecessors were Abubeker, Omar, and Othman.) The five years of his reign were chiefly occupied in contests and combats with rival claimants, who were supported by Ayesha, the widow of the Prophet. In 657 fresh troubles were excited by Moawiyah and Amru, (see this.) At length a plot was formed by three fanatics for the assassination of the three rivals, in order thereby to extinguish the schism which had begun. Amru and Moawiyah escaped, but Ali was slain at Cufah, in 661. Ali left two sons by his wife Fatima, one of whom, Hasan, succeeded him, but abdicated, in a few months, in favor of Moawiyah, and was poisoned by order of Yezid, in 669: the other, Hoseïn, became the rival of Yezid, and was massacred by his orders in the plain of Kerbela, in October, 680. Two sons survived him. The Shiites are a Mohammedan sect who acknowledge neither Ali's predecessors nor his successors as lawful caliphs, but pay homage to the descendants of his two grand-children, the sons of Hoseïn. The last of this race was Mohammed Montatar, (born 863 A. D.,) who is supposed by them still to survive in concealment, that he may appear as sovereign in the end of time. Of this persuasion is Persia. During the whole of June the Shiites keep fast in honor of Ali and his sons Hasan and Hoseïn: they lament them by night, when theatrical exhibitions are performed representing their battles and assassination. Effigies of their bodies, stained with blood, are carried in procession through the streets, and every Shiite learns to execrate the Sunnites, the enemies of Ali. Of the latter sect are the Ottoman Turks.

Firdusi, (916–1020,) a celebrated Persian poet. His talents having attracted the notice of Sultan Mahmoud, he gave him a distinguished reception at his court, and employed him to write a metrical history of the Persian sovereigns, which occupied him thirty years. During this period the enemies of Firdusi succeeded in prejudicing Mahmoud against him, and instead of being rewarded, according to promise, with 60,000 pieces of gold, the same number of the smallest silver coin were sent him. The poet indignantly distributed them among the menials, wrote a severe satire on the sultan, and fled to Bagdad. Ferdusi is one of the greatest of Oriental poets; and although the "Schahuameh" has little historical value, it is much read by his countrymen for its poetic beauties and the excellence of its language and style. Portions only of the poem have been translated into English.

Fleury, (1653–1743,) Cardinal and Prime Minister of France, under Louis XV. Through the interest of Madame de Maintenon, he was appointed instructor to Louis XV. In 1726 he was created cardinal, placed at the head of the ministry, and from his seventy-third to his ninetieth year he administered the affairs of France. He ruled almost as long as Richelieu or Mazarin. His rule, however, resembled theirs only as decrepitude resembles manhood. He would be styled wise if short-sighted selfishness could be called wisdom, and if passion for power, without the great thoughts and moral vigor which make almost a virtue of ambition, could be excused.

He left France endangered by a war (the Austrian Succession war) that was increasing from day to day; having lost the renown for moderation, justice, and pacific spirit, that he had designed to secure for himself, without winning a reputation for active and conquering power.

Foix, Gaston de, (1489–1512,) a brave French officer, was the son of Jean de Foix and Marie d'Orleans, sister of Louis XII. In 1512, he succeeded the duke of Longueville in the command of the French army in Italy, and on account of his daring exploits was called "The thunderbolt of Italy." He raised the siege of Bologna, relieved Brescia, and laid siege to Ravenna, where he fell in the arms of victory, on the 11th of April. There are few instances in history of so brief and at the same time so brilliant a military career as that of Gaston de Foix. He had not only given extraordinary promise, but in the course of a very few months had achieved such results as might well make the greatest powers of the Peninsula tremble for their possessions. His precocious military talents, the early age at which he assumed the command of armies, as well as many peculiarities of his discipline and tactics, suggest some resemblance to the beginning of Napoleon's career.

Franklin, Benjamin, (1706–1790,) an eminent natural philosopher and politician. Born in Boston, he settled finally, in 1726, in Philadelphia, as a printer, and in 1728 established a newspaper. His habitual prudence, combined with activity and talents, soon gave him rank with the leading men of Philadelphia. In the French war, in 1744, he proposed and carried into effect a plan of association for the defence of that province, which served to unfold to America the secret of her own strength. About the same time he commenced his electrical experiments, making several discoveries, the principal of which was the identity of the electrical fluid and lightning, and he immediately applied it to the erection of iron conductors for the protection of buildings from lightning. In 1757, he was sent to England as agent for Pennsylvania; and in this capacity, he was (1765) examined before the House of Commons concerning the Stamp Act. In 1775, he returned home, and was elected a delegate to the Congress. He was very active in the contest between England and the colonies; and was sent to France, where, in 1768, he signed the treaty of alliance, offensive and defensive, which produced a war between France and England. In 1783 he signed the definite treaty of peace, and in 1785 returned to America, where he was chosen president of the supreme council. He was a man of much practical wisdom, possessing a cool temper and sound judgment; and though never inattentive to his own interest, he united with it a zealous solicitude for the advancement of the general interests of mankind. There are lives of Franklin by his grandson W. T. Franklin, by Jared Sparks, and by James Parton.

Frederick II., (1194–1250,) Emperor of the West, son of Henry VI., and Constance of Sicily, was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1215. Five years still elapsed before he received the imperial crown at Rome; on which occasion he had to renew a vow previously extorted from him to take the Cross. In 1225, he married Tolande, daughter of John of Brienne, king of Jerusalem, and two years later, after several delays, he embarked for the Holy Land. Illness compelled him in a few days to land again, and for this he was excommunicated by Pope Gregory IX., the first of ten "thunders of the Vatican" against him. He set out again in 1228. But the Pope exciting opposition to him, and invading his hereditary states, he at once concluded a truce with the sultan of Egypt, by which he became master of Jerusalem. He entered the city, crowned himself, and returned to Europe. He recovered his states, made peace with the Pope, and suppressed the revolt of his son Henry, who was then imprisoned for life. Frederick promoted the election of Innocent IV., who had been his friend; but he soon found in Innocent a most determined enemy. A sentence of deposition was published in 1245. The mediation of St. Louis utterly failed to bend the Pope to reconciliation. Rival emperors were set up, and a general war was kindled against him, in the midst of which he died at Fiorenzuola, in December, 1250. Frederick II. was the greatest sovereign, probably the greatest man, of the 13th century. Of noble person, intellectual physiognomy, master of the best knowledge of his age, brave, energetic, and generous-hearted, notwithstanding the arduous struggle in which he was engaged throughout his reign he zealously promoted learning, science, and art, founded the universities of Vienna and Naples, had the works of Aristotle translated into Latin, and was the patron of several great artists. A new and valuable history of this great sovereign has been recently published by Mr. Kington.

Frederick the Great, King of Prussia, (1712–1786 A. D.,) was the son of Frederick William I. (See GENEALOGY, XIII.) In 1740, he succeeded to the throne, and it was not long before he asserted his claim to a part of Silesia. (See AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION WAR, Appendix.) During the ten years of comparative tranquillity that followed, Frederick employed himself in bringing his troops into a state of discipline perhaps never before equalled. He also encouraged agriculture, the arts, manufactures, and commerce, reformed the laws, and increased the revenues; thus improving the condition of the state, and rendering it more than a match for foreign enemies. Secret information of an alliance between France, Austria, Russia, and Saxony, gave him reason to fear an attack, which he hastened to anticipate by the invasion of Saxony, in 1756. This commenced the Seven Years' War, (see this.) At length, after various changes of fortune, he was left, in 1763, in the peaceful possession of his hereditary and acquired dominions. The remainder of his life was passed in literary leisure. Voltaire and Maupertuis were for a long time his especial favorites. His own literary attainments were far above mediocrity, as may be seen by his "History of His Own Times," "The History of the Seven Years' War," "Considerations on the State of Europe," "Memoirs of the House of Brandenburg," poems, etc. Frederick, on ascending the throne, found in his states a population of only two millions and a quarter, and left them with six millions, a result to which his genius as a general and a legislator chiefly contributed. An English history of the "Last of the Kings" has been written by Thomas Carlyle. (Appendix, pp. 208–210.)

Frederick William, (1620–1688,) generally called the Great Elector, succeeded his father as elector of Brandenburg, in 1645. He is considered as the founder of Prussian greatness; and from him was derived much of that military spirit which became the national characteristic. He made Prussia free from feudal subjection to Poland, conquered Pomerania, joined the league against Louis XIV., and defeated the Swedes in 1674. He applied himself with much wisdom and earnestness to the promotion of the well-being of his subjects, favoring trade, making roads, etc. By affording protection to the French Protestant refugees, he gained, as citizens of the state, 20,000 industrious manufacturers, an acquisition of no slight importance to the north of Germany; and he also gave great encouragement to agricultural improvements. At his death he left to his son a country much enlarged, and a well-supplied treasury.

French Indian War. See Appendix, page 210.

French Republic, (1792–1804.) Internal disturbances in France led to a decree for the banishment of the nonjuring priests; external menaces of the European powers, to that against the emigrants; the coalition of these powers, to war against Europe; and the first defeat of the French armies, to the formation of a camp of 20,000 men. The refusal of Louis XVI. to adopt most of these decrees, rendered him an object of suspicion to the Girondists, (*i. e.* deputies from the departments of the Garonne and Gironde,) who formed the moderate party in the legislative assembly. They consented to the demands of the Jacobins (the republican party) to suspend the royal authority and to summon a national convention. The National Convention constituted itself on the 20th of September, 1792, and commenced its deliberations on the 21st. In its first sitting, they proposed and accepted the following motions: 1st. That the corner-stone of the new constitution is sovereignty of the people; 2d. That the constitution shall be accepted by the people or be null; 3d. That the people ought to be avenged, and have right judges; 4th. That landed and other property be sacred forever; 5th. That *royalty from this day is abolished in France.*

Froissart, Jean, (1337–1401,) one of the earliest French chroniclers. He was patronized by Philippa of Hainault, queen of Edward III., whose court was always open to the gay poet and narrator of chivalric deeds. In 1366, he accompanied Edward, the Black Prince, to Bordeaux. On the death of his protectress, Froissart gave up his connection with England; and, after various adventures as a diplomatist and soldier, he became domestic chaplain to the duke of Brabant, a poet like himself, and of whose verses, with some of his own, he formed a kind of romance, entitled "Meliador." He paid another visit to England, in 1395, and was introduced to Richard II., on whose dethronement he returned to Flanders, and died there in 1401. His historical writings strikingly exhibit the character and manners of his age, and are highly valued for their graphic simplicity and minute details. They embrace a period of nearly eighty years, terminating at the year 1400.

G.

Galen, Claudius, (131–200 A. D.,) one of the most celebrated physicians of ancient times. Settling in Rome, and acquiring an immense practice, he was driven from thence by the intrigues of his jealous rivals, who attributed his success to magic. But he was recalled by the emperor Marcus Aurelius, who, on quitting Rome to make war on the Germans, confided to Galen the care of the health of his son Commodus. A part only of his very numerous writings has been preserved; but even that part forms five folio volumes, and affords undoubted proofs of his practical and theoretical skill. "The system of Galen," says Liebig, "in regard to the cause of disease and the action of remedies, was regarded during thirteen centuries as impregnable truth, and had acquired the entire infallibility of the articles of a religious creed. Their authority only ceased when chemical science, advancing, made them no longer tenable. Soon after Luther burnt the papal bulls, Paracelsus burnt at Basel the works of Galen."

Galilei, Galileo, (1564–1642,) an illustrious astronomer, mathematician, and philosopher. At the age of 24 he was appointed mathematical professor at Pisa. There his bold assertion of the laws of nature against the scholastic philosophy raised up such a host of enemies against him, that, in 1592, he was obliged to resign his professorship. He then went to Padua, where he lectured with unparalleled success, and students flocked to hear him from all parts of Europe. After remaining there eighteen years, Cosmo III. invited him back to Pisa, and soon after called him to Florence. Galileo heard in 1609 of the invention of the telescope: he immediately constructed one for himself, and a series of the most important astronomical discoveries followed. He found that the moon, like the earth, has an uneven surface, and he taught his scholars to measure the height of its mountains by their shadow; but his most remarkable discoveries were those of Jupiter's satellites, Saturn's ring, the sun's spots, and the starry nature of the Milky Way. The result of his discoveries was a conviction of the truth of the Copernican system. He was twice persecuted by the Inquisition, first in 1615, and again in 1633. On both occasions he was compelled to abjure the system of Copernicus; but it is said that on the last occasion, when he had repeated the abjuration, he stamped his foot on the earth, indignantly muttering, "Yet it moves!" He died, at the age of 78, in 1642, the year in which Newton was born. The greatest work of Galileo is the "Dialogue on the Copernican and Ptolemaic Systems." One great and valuable monument of the labors of Galileo, the whole series of his observations of the satellites of Jupiter, after being lost to the world for two centuries, has been discovered in the library of the Pitti Palace, and is published in the recent edition of his works. There is a good English Life of Galileo by Drinkwater.

Gama, Vasco de, (1469–1525,) an illustrious Portuguese navigator, to whom belongs the merit of having discovered the route to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. Having under his command three vessels, Gama set sail, July 9th, 1497; in the beginning of the next year reached the Eastern coast of Africa, and, holding his course straight toward the coast of Malabar, arrived in May at Calicut. He returned to Lisbon in two years and two months from the time of his setting out. John III. of Portugal appointed him viceroy of India, on the death of Albuquerque in 1524, on which he established his government at Cochin, where he died. The "Lusiad" of Camoens, who accompanied Gama, is founded on the adventures of his first voyage.

Geber, a great Arabian chemist of the 8th century, of whose history little is known, but whose writings contain notices of so many important chemical facts, that he is considered entitled to the designation of the father and founder of chemistry. He was acquainted with nearly all the chemical processes in use down to the 18th century. But he did not, as a philosopher, rise above the level of his age; explaining phenomena by "occult causes," and firmly believing in and seeking the "philosopher's stone." Geber's work was translated from Arabic into Latin, by Golius, of Leyden, who entitled it, "Lapis Philosophorum." In 1678, an English translation by Richard Russell appeared. It is the oldest chemical treatise known.

Gengis-Khan, (1163–1227.) After much intestine warfare, this conqueror was proclaimed khan of the united Mogul and Tartar tribes. He now

made preparation for the course of conquest to which he professed he had a divine call. He first invaded China, and then he began his great Western campaign. Gengis-Khan became, by dint of successive victories, monarch of a territory extending over 1,500 leagues. He died in 1227, in the 64th year of his age, and the 52d of his reign; having, before his death, divided his immense territories between his four sons. It was the greatest tragedy which our historical knowledge records, when the highly cultivated Eastern world was devastated and destroyed for ever by an overwhelming flood of barbarians. The savage Mongolian hordes swept down from their high central plains, laying waste and destroying, throughout Persia, Asia Minor, Turkistan, and Russia. It was no revivifying flood, like that which enriched the Roman soil when the Germans invaded it. Gengis-Khan's hordes knew no joy beyond building huge heaps of the skulls of the slain, and marching their horses over the ruins of burnt cities. Wherever they passed, there was an end to all culture, to all the joys of life, and to the future prosperity of nations; a dreary, savage barbarism pressed upon countries which but a century before could have rivalled in civilization the very flower of Europe. Here and there, perchance, Islam could still enter the lists of military prowess with the Christian nations, but her intellectual vigor was broken, and the dominion of the earth was thus forever secured to the more fortunate nations of the West.

Genseric, (428–477,) King of the Vandals, in Southern Spain. In 428, on the invitation of Bonifacius, the Roman governor of Africa, he passed from Spain into that province. He soon quarrelled with Bonifacius, defeated him, and besieged him in Hippo. After a siege of fourteen months, during which the great Augustine died in the city, it was taken and burnt. In 439, Genseric became master of Carthage, and of the most fertile parts of Northern Africa. He was an Arian, and banished all the Catholic bishops from his dominions. He formed a powerful fleet, ravaged the coasts of Sicily and Italy, and in 455 entered Rome, which was plundered for fourteen days. The bishop Leo went out to intercede with him, and was treated with respect. Genseric's power was firmly enough established to resist all attempts to overthrow it, and he was able to leave a powerful kingdom to his successor.

Georgia, settled 1732 A. D. The first permanent English settlement within the limits of the United States was made at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1607. Other English settlements were made from time to time along the entire coast, the latest being in Georgia, in 1732. A company of benevolent gentlemen, headed by James Oglethorpe, designed it as an asylum for the poor of England and for the persecuted Protestants of all nations. James Oglethorpe, with 120 emigrants, left England for America. He ascended the Savannah river, made treaties of friendship with the neighboring tribes of Indians, and by his kindness gained their confidence. Liberal offers were made to all who would settle in the colony, and hundreds from Germany and Scotland were induced to emigrate.

Gerbert. See SYLVESTER II.

Ghent, Pacification of, (1576 A. D.) In December, 1573, Alba (see this) was superseded, as governor of the Netherlands, by Don Louis the Requesens, who expired suddenly, March 5th, 1576, without having been able to make an end to the insurrection. The government now devolved on the council of state, while Count Mansfeld was made commander-in-chief, who proved totally unable to restrain the licentious soldiery. The Spaniards, whose pay was in arrears, had now lost all discipline. No sooner had Requesens expired than they broke into open mutiny, and acted as if they were entire masters of the country. To repress their violence, the council of state called upon the citizens to repress force by force; but they were dispersed, with great slaughter, by the mutineers, by whom many towns were plundered. At last they attacked Antwerp, which the Spaniards entered early in November, and sacked during three days. The horrible excesses committed in this sack procured for it the name of the "Spanish Fury." William of Orange, taking advantage of the alarm created at Brussels by the sack of Antwerp, persuaded the provisional government to summon the states-general. To this assembly all the provinces sent deputies. The nobles of the southern provinces sought William's assistance in expelling the Spaniards, which William consented to grant only on condition that an alliance should be effected between the northern and southern Netherlands. This proposal was agreed to, and toward the end of September, Orange sent several thousand men from Zealand to Ghent, at whose approach the Spaniards evacuated the citadel. The proposed alliance was now converted into a formal union by the treaty called

the *Pacification of Ghent*, signed November 8th, 1576, by which it was agreed to renew the edict of banishment against the Spanish troops; to procure the suspension of the decrees against the Protestant religion; to summon the states-general of the northern and southern provinces; and to provide for the toleration and practice of the Protestant religion in Holland and Zealand.

Gibraltar taken by the English, (1704 A. D.) Gibraltar stands on a remarkable rock, which rises to the height of 1,430 feet, and has a length of three miles, projecting southward from the mainland of Spain. Its modern name is derived from Tarik, (Gibel-al-Tarik, "Tarik's Hill,") the Arab conqueror of Spain in 711. It was recovered from the Moors first in 1309, and finally in 1462, and was incorporated with the Spanish kingdom in 1502. It was captured by the English, under Sir George Rooke, in 1704, and has been retained by them ever since, in spite of attempts to recover it in 1727, and again in the memorable siege of 1779–1783. Its value to Great Britain is immense, as securing to her a commanding position in reference to Spain and the Mediterranean, and also as a dépôt for coal, military stores, and articles of commerce. The defences are of great strength, and include galleries excavated in the solid rock. The rock is enlivened with verdure in the spring and autumn, but at other periods is bare and brown. The town stands on the west side of the rock, and contains a population (exclusive of the garrison) of 15,426. (See Appendix, page 205.)

Giotto, (1276–1336,) the great Italian painter. His earliest known works are the frescoes of the life of St. Francis, in the Upper Church, and the allegories of the monastic virtues, on the ceiling of the Lower Church, of Assisi. While at Rome, during the jubilee, in 1300, he made acquaintance with Dante, which ripened into friendship. In 1304, Benedict XI. engaged Giotto to paint at Avignon, but died before the commission could be undertaken. It was on this occasion that the papal envoy asked Giotto for a specimen of his skill, and Giotto drew off-hand his famous O, which satisfied the Pope, though it only puzzled his messenger. The greatest productions of Giotto were the frescoes in the Peruzzi Chapel, Florence. These were covered with whitewash in the 18th century, were partly rediscovered in 1841, and not wholly till 1863. They are said to justify the highest praise ever given to the great master. Four years later he was appointed architect of the Duomo and the walls of Florence, and by his design for the Campanile showed himself a master also in architecture. Giotto is admitted to be equally "eminent as a composer, a designer, and a colorist, and united at a common level all the qualities which constitute the universal genius of the artist." He studied nature anew, founded a new law of color, and, starting with the force of a giant, improved at every step he took.

Gloucester. See BEAUFORT.

Goethe, Johann Wolfgang von, (1749–1832,) the greatest modern poet of Germany, and the patriarch of German literature. In 1771 he went to Wetzlar, where he found, in his own love for a betrothed lady, and in the suicide of a young man named Jerusalem, the subjects for his "Sorrows of Werther," which appeared in 1774, and at once excited the attention of his countrymen. Having, in 1779, entered the service of the duke of Saxe-Weimar, he soon assembled there around him a splendid galaxy of distinguished men. The direction of the theatre was confided to him, and he there brought out some of the masterpieces of Schiller, with an effect worthy of them. There, too, his own dramatic works first appeared: "Goetz von Berlichingen," "Faust," "Iphigenia in Tauris," "Tasso." Goethe was an intellectual giant, and represented in himself alone the whole of German literature. His keen and profound insight to human life and character, his encyclopædic knowledge, his sublime imagination, his exquisite sensibility and play of fancy, and his consummate style, place him in the highest circle of intellectual and literary glory. "Faust" is his greatest poem. Its subject is the life of man in the world—the aspiration, the resistance, the temptation, the sin, the agony, the failure—mysterious and very mournful, furnishing matter for comment and controversy, for admiration and blame, for many a year yet. This great poem has been repeatedly translated into English. The greatest prose work of Goethe is "Wilhelm Meister's Apprenticeship," (translated by Carlyle.) His beautiful songs and shorter poems are all tinged with the profound reflections of his philosophical mind, and continually touch the deep springs whence flow our griefs and joys, our fears and hopes, and all the emotions of the soul. Books about Goethe in English literature are the several

"Essays" on his life and works by Carlyle, and the "Life of Goethe," by G. H. Lewes.

Goldsmith, Oliver, (1728–1774,) was one of the most pleasing English writers of the 18th century. He emerged from obscurity in 1765 by the publication of his poem entitled "The Traveller, or a Prospect of Society," of which Dr. Johnson said "that there had not been so fine a poem since Pope's time." The year following appeared his well-known novel of the "Vicar of Wakefield," and in 1770 he published "The Deserted Village," a poem, which, for graphic description and pathos, is above all praise. In 1772 he produced his comedy of "She Stoops to Conquer," which was highly successful. Goldsmith was the friend of Johnson, Reynolds, and Burke, and a member of the literary club established by the former. Goldsmith has been fortunate in his biographers. Within a few years his life has been written by Prior, by Washington Irving, and by Forster. The diligence of Prior deserves great praise; the style of Washington Irving is always pleasing; but the highest place must, in justice, be assigned to the eminently interesting work of Forster.

Gower, John, (1320–1402.) Moral Gower is the author of three great poetical works, "Speculum Meditantis," written in French; "Vox Clamantis," written in Latin; and "Confessio Amantis," written in English. This last poem opens by introducing the author himself, in the character of an unhappy lover in despair. Venus appears to him, and appoints her priest, called Genius, to hear the lover's confession. This priest plies him with moral tales, the most remarkable of which is the tale of the Caskets in the fifth book. This is the story from which Shakspeare is supposed to have taken the hint of the incident of the caskets in his Merchant of Venice. Near the end of his poem, he puts in the mouth of Venus a glowing compliment to Chaucer, his friend and brother poet.

Gracchus, Caius Sempronius, (154–121 B. C.) The population of Rome consisted after 200 B. C. of an aristocracy of wealth and an indolent and poverty-stricken commonalty. The former were tenants of the whole public domain; and the free peasantry, ground down by military service and compelled by absolute want to sell their birthright, were gradually disappearing. Under these circumstances, a tribune of the people, named Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, revived in the year 133 a law of Licinius, by which it was enacted that no individual should hold more than 500 acres of the public domain. Half the quantity was allowed for each son, the remainder to be restored to the state in order to be divided among the poor. The law was published, and triumvirs appointed for carrying it into execution: they were Tiberius, Caius, and his father-in-law Appius Claudius. The great landholders attacked in every possible way the author of the law which despoiled them, and finally, to prevent his being re-elected tribune, had him assassinated, in 132. Caius Sempronius Gracchus nourished in his heart the ideas of his brother and the desire to revenge him. After his brother's death, he lived in retirement till B. C. 126, when he was sent as quæstor to Sardinia. Two years later he returned to Rome, and was chosen tribune. He now renewed and extended the Agrarian Law; planted new colonies in Italy and the provinces; provided for the sale of corn at a low price; deprived the senate of their judicial power; and had new roads made and the old ones restored in all parts of Italy. These measures are called the Sempronian laws. Caius was re-elected tribune for 122, and at once proposed a wide extension of the Roman franchise. By this he forfeited his popularity with the citizens of Rome. He was not again chosen tribune, and a meeting of the senate was called to revoke one of his laws. The irritation was immense, the friends of Gracchus were armed, blood was shed, the great reformer was declared a public enemy, and in the combat which took place next day, three thousand are said to have fallen. Gracchus, accompanied by a slave, escaped from the field of battle and reached the suburb on the right bank of the Tiber. There were afterward found the two dead bodies; it seemed as if the slave had put to death first his master and then himself. The memory of the Gracchi remained officially proscribed. Cornelia was not allowed to put on mourning for the death of her last son; but the passionate attachment which very many had felt toward the two noble brothers, and especially toward Caius, during their life, was touchingly displayed also after their death in the almost religious veneration which the multitude, in spite of all precautions of the police, continued to pay to their memory and to the spots where they had fallen.

Granicus, a river in Troas, which had its source in a branch of Ida, and flowing through the Adrastian plain, emptied itself into the Propontis.

Alexander the Great gained here his first victory over the Persians in B. C. 334.

Gregorian Calendar, (1582 A. D.) The pontificate of Gregory XIII. is chiefly memorable for the reformation of the calendar which took place under his auspices. Luigi Lilio, a Calabrian, won for himself immortal memory by his suggestion of the easiest method of overcoming the difficulty. The Julian calendar, according to which every year had an excess of 11′ 14″ 30‴, was amended by leaving out 10 days (the aggregate amount of the excess) in the year 1582, an arrangement by which the 15th of October was made immediately to follow the 4th, it being also settled that in future three days should be left out in every 400 years. Thus every year which is divisible by 4, except those divisible by 100 and not by 400, has 366 days; all other years have 365 days.

Gregory of Tours, (554–595.) He was author of a "History of the Franks," and is the most eminent of the early French historians. His history was continued by Fredegarius, who gives him the following testimony: "Would that I were gifted with such a portion of eloquence that I might be but a little equal to the task! But where the fountain is not ever flowing, the jar will still fail to be filled. The world is growing old, and our faculties are on the decline; nor can any one of this day — nor would he presume to affect it — be like the great Gregory of Tours." Gregory of Tours is the principal authority for the thrilling story of Fredegonda and Brunehilda. (See this.)

Gregory I., (544–604,) Pope, surnamed the Great. He discovered such abilities as a senator, that the emperor Justinus appointed him prefect of Rome, after which he embraced the monastic life. Pope Pelagius II. made him apostolical secretary. He was elected successor to that pontiff in 590; and, a few years later, sent some monks, under the direction of St. Augustine, for the purpose of converting the Anglo-Saxons to Christianity. Pope Gregory was pious and charitable, had lofty notions of the papal authority, was a reformer of the clerical discipline, and, after his death, was canonized. He is, however, accused, but on doubtful evidence, of burning a number of the works of ancient authors, lest attention to heathen literature should supersede the ecclesiastical studies of the age. He left numerous works.

Gregory VII., Pope, first known as the monk Hildebrand, of Cluny, was a native of Tuscany. He was the friend and counsellor of Leo II. and the four succeeding popes, and, on the death of Alexander II., was elected to succeed him, 1073. He obtained confirmation of his election from the emperor Henry IV., and immediately applied himself zealously to reform two of the grossest evils of the Church — simony, and the licentiousness of the clergy. In 1074 he assembled a council, by which it was forbidden to the prelates to receive investiture of a layman; and this was the first step in the quarrel with the emperors, which lasted so many years. Henry, disregarding the papal authority, was summoned to Rome; but he held a diet at Worms, and pronounced the deposition of the Pope. To this Gregory replied by procuring the deposition of the emperor and the election of another, Rudolph of Suabia. Henry now promised submission, and in the winter of 1077 went to Italy. The Pope was at the castle of Canossa, and there, after keeping the penitent king of Germany three days waiting at the gate, he gave him absolution. The terms imposed on him were not kept: Henry set up a rival Pope, and, after several unsuccessful attempts, entered Rome in 1084, had himself crowned emperor by his own Pope, and besieged Gregory in St. Angelo. The Pope was delivered by Guiscard, and, retiring to Salerno, died there in 1085. Gregory VII. was a haughty, inflexible man, whose aim was to establish the supremacy of the papacy over not only all churches, but all temporal sovereignties.

Gregory IX., Pope. In 1227 he succeeded Honorius III. The principal events of his pontificate were the various incidents of his contest with the emperor Frederick II., (see this,) whom he repeatedly excommunicated, absolving his subjects from their allegiance, and proclaiming a crusade against him. In 1229, Gregory levied a tithe on all movables in England, toward the expenses of his war with Frederick. He established, a few years later, the Inquisition (against the Albigenses); excited, by his haughty demeanor, a revolt at Rome in 1234, and was driven from the city, to which he did not return for three years. Died 1241 A. D.

Grey, Lady Jane, (1537–1554,) whose accomplishments and misfortunes have rendered her an especial object of interest, was the daughter of Henry Grey, marquis of Dorset, by the Lady Frances, daughter of Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk, and Mary, youngest sister of Henry VIII. (See Gene-

alogy, IV.) She wrote an incomparable hand, played well on several instruments, and acquired a knowledge of the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, as well as of the French and Italian languages. Roger Ascham has given a beautiful and affecting narrative of his interview with her at Bradgate, where he found her reading Plato in Greek, while the family were amusing themselves in the park. The ambitious duke of Northumberland projected a marriage between her and his son, Lord Guilford Dudley, (May, 1553.) Soon after this, Edward VI. died, having been prevailed upon to settle the crown upon Lady Jane, who reluctantly accepted it, and was proclaimed with great pomp. This gleam of royalty, however, was of short duration, for the pageant reign lasted but nine days. The people were dissatisfied, and the nobility indignant at the presumption of Northumberland, so that Mary soon overcame her enemies, and was not backward in taking ample revenge. The duke of Northumberland was beheaded, and Lady Jane and her husband were arraigned, convicted of treason, and sent to the Tower. After being confined some time, the council resolved to put them also to death, (February 12th, 1554.)

Guelphs, The, in England. (See Genealogy, I. and V.) At the period of the Revolution in 1688, it had been provided that in the case of the death of William and Mary without children, the crown should descend to Princess Anne her issue. The death of the duke of Gloucester (Queen Anne's only surviving child) in 1700, rendered a new settlement necessary. This passed the descendants of Henrietta Maria, the daughter of Charles I., and those of the older children of Elizabeth, electress Palatine, daughter of James I., (who were Catholics,) and limited the succession to her fifth daughter, the Princess Sophia, and her issue, being Protestants. In accordance with this Act of Settlement, the crown, on the death of Anne, devolved upon George I., already elector of Hanover. By the accession of George I., the crowns of Great Britain and Hanover were united till the death of William IV. (A. D. 1837).

Gustavus Adolphus, (1594–1632,) King of Sweden, was the grandson of Gustavus Vasa, and succeeded his father Charles IX. in 1611. He selected Axel Oxenstiern for his chief minister, and by his counsel restored the nobles to the rights and privileges of which they had been deprived, and thus attached them to his interests. Invited by the Protestants of Germany, and urged by France, he marched, in 1630, to their aid. He advanced from point to point in Pomerania and Mecklenburg, victorious at every step, and took 80 fortified towns in eight months. At length the emperor sent his general Tilly to oppose him, and Gustavus won a memorable victory over him at Leipsic, on the 7th of September, 1631. Saxony heartily supported Gustavus, who soon after took Mentz, and in April, 1632, defeated Tilly again at the passage of the Lech. The emperor, alarmed, made Wallenstein (see this) commander-in-chief; he met Gustavus on the field of Lützen on the 6th of November, 1632. Victory was with the Swedes, but their heroic leader fell in the fight, not without suspicion of assassination. Gustavus Adolphus was one of the noblest men and one of the greatest military commanders of modern times. He was great, also, as a ruler and administrator, and did not allow war to exclude commerce and the internal regulation of his states from his earnest attention. There is a recent English Life of Gustavus Adolphus, by B. Chapman.

H.

Hadrianus, Publius Ælius, (76–138 A. D.,) Roman Emperor. He married Sabina, the heiress of Trajan, whom he accompanied in his expeditions, and became successively prætor, governor of Pannonia, and consul. On the death of Trajan, in 117, he assumed the government, made peace with the Persians and the Sarmatians, and remitted the arrears due to the treasury. He spent the remaining 18 years of his reign in travelling through the various provinces of the empire. In 120 he visited Gaul, and thence passed over to Britain, where he built the great wall, 80 miles in length, from the mouth of the Tyne to Solway Frith, to secure the Roman provinces from the incursions of the Caledonians. In 132, the Jews, irritated by the building of a temple of Jupiter on the site of the Holy City, began a war which they carried on with fierce determination for nearly

four years. He was on the whole a just and wise ruler, favored literature and the arts, and especially distinguished himself by the great architectural works which he executed or projected at Rome, Athens, and many other cities which he visited. He adopted Antoninus Pius as his successor.

Hannibal, (B. C. 247–183,) the great Carthaginian general. He learned the art of war under his father in Spain, and was present at the battle in which he fell. Hannibal was then 18, and after serving six years under Hasdrubal, (B. C. 221,) he became commander-in-chief of the Carthaginian army. To complete the conquest of Spain south of the Ebro, he besieged the city of Saguntum, and, after a siege of eight months, took it. The city being in alliance with Rome, its fall was the occasion of the great war between Rome and Carthage, known as the Second Punic war. (See Appendix, page 188.) In 202, Scipio finally defeated Hannibal at the battle of Zama, and peace was concluded. The great Carthaginian did not lose hope, but applied himself to political and financial reforms and preparations for fresh war. His enemies, however, forced him to leave Carthage. He fled to the court of Antiochus the Great, who was just entering on a war with the Romans. After three years, the war ending with the defeat of Antiochus, Hannibal, to avoid being given up to Rome, took refuge with Prusias, king of Bithynia, (B. C. 190.) When his surrender was demanded in 183, he put an end to his life by poison. It is acknowledged that Hannibal ranks with the greatest generals of ancient or modern times. His great bodily strength and fascinating manners, marvellous sagacity, caution in planning, and rapidity in action, made him the idol of his troops. He was a man, too, of considerable cultivation, and shone as a statesman almost as much as a general.

Haroun al Raschid, (?– 809,) a celebrated Caliph of the Saracens, ascended the throne in 786, and was the most potent prince of his race, ruling over territories extending from Egypt to Khorassan. He gained many splendid victories over the Greek emperors, and obtained immense renown for his bravery, magnificence, and love of letters; but he was cruel and tyrannical. Haroun al Raschid was the contemporary of Charles the Great, emperor of the West, and sent an embassy to his court, with a present of a beautiful clepsydra or water-clock.

Hastings, Warren, (1733–1818 A. D.,) first Governor-general of British India. At the age of 17 he went out to India as a writer in the company's service. After fourteen years' residence in Bengal he returned to England; but in 1769 he went out as second in council at Madras, where he remained about two years, and then removed to Calcutta as president of the supreme council at Bengal. This was a critical period, and the state of Hindostan soon became perilous from the revolts of the native subjects, the defection of allies, and the increasing power of Hyder Ali, the sovereign of Mysore, aided by the land and sea forces of France. In this exigency the governor-general had to depend solely upon his own exertions; and he succeeded beyond all expectation in saving British India from a combination of enemies, and in increasing and strengthening the power of the company at the expense of the native princes. Notwithstanding this, party spirit at home turned the merit of Mr. Hastings into a crime, and charges were brought against him in Parliament. In 1786 he returned to England, when he was accused of having governed arbitrarily and tyrannically; of having extorted immense sums of money; and of having exercised every species of oppression. An impeachment, conducted by Burke, followed, the proceedings of which lasted nine years. He was at length acquitted. He lived, however, to see his plans for the security of India publicly applauded. There is a Life of Warren Hastings by Gleig, and a brilliant essay on his career by Lord Macaulay.

Henry II., (1133–1189,) King of England, first of the Plantagenet line, was the eldest son of Geoffrey of Anjou, and Maud, daughter of Henry I., king of England. On the death of his father, in 1151, he succeeded to Anjou, Touraine, and Maine, and in the following year, by his marriage with Eleanor of Aquitaine, the divorced wife of Louis VII. of France, he became possessor of the duchy of Aquitaine, and in 1154 he succeeded to the English throne. He was now king of England and master of the whole seacoast of France from Flanders to the Pyrenees. In 1162, Thomas à Becket was elected archbishop of Canterbury, and the great struggle between the civil and ecclesiastical powers began, which resulted in the exile and murder of Becket, war with France, and the king's penance at Becket's tomb. In 1171, Henry invaded Ireland, and effected a conquest of that island. The remaining years of his reign were imbittered by the

numerous revolts of his sons. The revolt of his youngest son John was the last and fatal blow from which he could not recover. He died at Chinon, July 6th, 1189. Notwithstanding the conflicting estimates of the character and measures of Henry II., viewed as the champion of state supremacy, it is evident that he was a man of powerful intellect, superior education, great energy, activity, and decisiveness, and also of impetuous passions. Ruling almost despotically, he greatly diminished the power of the nobles, and thus relieved the people of their intolerable tyranny. Good order and just administration of the laws were established, and the practice of holding the "assizes" was introduced. He revived the trial by jury in order to check the resort to trial by battle, which he could not abolish.

Henry III., (1017–1056,) Emperor, son of the Emperor Conrad II., succeeded his father, 1039. Nature had given him the talents, and education the character, suitable for an able ruler. In everything he undertook he displayed a steady and persevering spirit; the clergy were compelled to acknowledge their dependence on him, and the temporal lords he held in actual subjection. The imperial authority was firmly established and the Truce of God was introduced into Germany. By this truce all quarrels were suspended from Wednesday evening to Monday morning as well as during the seasons of Lent and Advent. Henry III., who possessed the requisite vigor and fortitude to govern the empire, died young, (A. D. 1056,) and a child six years old, (see HENRY IV., Genealogy X.,) in whose name the government was carried on by a tottering regency, filled his place — one of those incidents which turn the fortunes of a world.

Henry IV., (1050–1106,) Emperor, son of Henry III. His mother Agnes was made regent, and on her death the chief power was seized by his uncles, the dukes of Saxony and Bavaria. Henry made war on them, and threw off their yoke. He, however, offended his subjects by the licentiousness of his manners, and quarrelled with the Pope, Gregory VII., about investitures. The latter, being appealed to in a subsequent dispute between Henry and the duke of Saxony, cited Henry to his tribunal, who then deposed the Pope, to be in turn excommunicated by him. The emperor was compelled to submit, went to Canossa, where the Pope then was, and, after being kept three days in the court-yard, received absolution. The quarrel was soon renewed: deposition, excommunication, and election of new Popes and emperors followed. Henry IV. ended his life in sorrow and neglect, at Liège, in 1106.

Henry I., King of Germany, surnamed The Fowler, (876–936,) was the son of Otto the Illustrious, duke of Saxony and Thuringia. When he was elected sovereign of Germany, in 918, he had to contend with anarchy at home and enemies abroad, but his activity and prudence overcame them all. He improved the art of war among the Germans, surrounded the cities with walls, and, as he compelled part of the nobility and freemen to reside in these cities, and insisted on all meetings for the discussion of public affairs being held in them, their progress in civilization was rapid. Great encouragement to commerce and manufactures were the result of his endeavors. He obtained a decisive victory over his most dangerous enemies, (the Magyars, at Merseburg, in 933,) re-established the marches, which had been broken at all points, and suffered nothing that bore the German name to be wrested from him. He bequeathed an undisputed sceptre to his house. (See Genealogy, X.)

Henry the Lion, (1129–1195,) Duke of Saxony and Bavaria, one of the most able and energetic sovereigns of the 12th century, was the son of Henry the Proud. He was invested with the duchy of Saxony in 1142, three years after his father's death, and he did not recover the duchy of Bavaria till more than ten years later. He was a great soldier, and accompanied the emperor Frederick I. on two expeditions to Italy; but their alliance was interrupted by the election of the emperor's son king of the Romans, the duke having hoped for that honor and the succession to the empire. In 1180 this powerful sovereign was deprived of his states by the diet of Würzburg, and exiled. He went first to England, and took refuge with Henry II., whose daughter Matilda he had married. Having returned to Germany, he was a second time exiled by the emperor; and making an attempt, after the emperor's departure to the Holy Land, to recover his states by arms, he was defeated, and compelled to make a humiliating peace. He died at Brunswick in 1195.

Heracleia, (280 B. C.,) a city of Magna Græcia, situated in Lucania, on the gulf of Tarentum, between the rivers Aciris and Siris. During the war of Pyrrhus with the Romans, Heracleia was the scene of the first conflict

between the two powers, the consul Lævinus being totally defeated by the Epirot king, in a battle fought between the city of Heracleia and the river Siris, B. C. 280.

Heraclius, (575–641,) Emperor of the East, was the son of a governor of Africa, and was sent to Constantinople, in 610, to deliver the empire from the tyrant Phocas, the murderer of the emperor Maurice. This Maurice was an excellent soldier, but seems to have been deficient in that commanding genius and in those shining qualities which are necessary for the supreme ruler of an empire. The Avares defeated his troops, which were unskilfully commanded when the emperor was not at their head; and when Maurice, like the old Roman senate, disdained to ransom those who had surrendered themselves to the enemy, Phocas, a general, availed himself of this occasion to corrupt the allegiance of the troops, who had been strangers to military discipline. In consequence of this, Maurice and his whole house lost their lives, and Phocas ascended the throne. The young Heraclius easily expelled this assassin, stained with every crime. Not so easy was the defence of the empire against the Persians, led by Chosroes, son-in-law of the murdered Maurice, who, under pretext of avenging the murder, had attacked the empire, and soon extended his dominions from the Tigris to the Nile. After some years of gradual preparation, Heraclius set out, in 622, to oppose the victorious Chosroes. In six campaigns he showed himself a brave soldier and a great general, defeating Chosroes, and concluded an honorable peace with his successor in 627. He would have terminated his reign with the most splendid renown, had not a nation been called forth into action which had never yet played its part among the revolutions of mankind, but which now sprang forth like lightning — the Arabians.

Herodotus, (484–408 B. C.) The great events of the Persian wars were not accompanied by any contemporaneous historical account. For a whole generation they were left to oral tradition. Then the poets busied themselves not only with adorning the individual monuments with significant inscriptions, but also with glorifying the deeds of the Wars of Liberation. The different communities eagerly sought to obtain these poems, in order to find in them a testimony of their own participation in these wars. Hence there was no lack, but, on the contrary, a wealth of tradition, when Herodotus, about 50 years after the battle of Marathon, began to note down the history of the Persian wars. This tradition, however, was neither complete nor entirely impartial and trustworthy; for poetry had contributed her part toward placing single days and deeds of fame in the brightest light, and by their memory edifying the national mind. Such was the tradition from which Herodotus, on whose narrative our knowledge of the Persian wars in the main depends, drew his materials. He was without any documental information in regard to those points in which a perfectly certain relation is impossible without the aid of written notes, and as to which, at the same time, a great temptation existed toward misstatements of the real facts. And this was particularly the case as to the numerical estimate of the hostile forces. On this head the Greeks were, from the first, uncertain; and, as the national glory was increased by every exaggeration of the superior numbers of the foe, these numbers grew in the mouth of the people, while the historian, without any accurate information from the other side, was unable to correct them. But, on the other hand, in regard to his narrative of the historical events, the confidence reposed in it has increased in proportion to the attempts which have been made to inquire into ancient history from a wider point of view, and on the basis of more accurate research. Internally the work bears the evident impress of perfect trustworthiness, and the single events appear before us in so natural a connection, that we may recognize in Herodotus a perfectly valid authority, although we are not enabled to test his narrative of the Persian wars by the accounts of other contemporaries.

Hesiod. After the age of Homer, there sprang up a style of composition called Epic, mainly because it was written in the epic style and language, but merely differing in substance from both the Iliad and Odyssey. Hesiod of Ascra, in Bœotia, represents this school or group. His works consist of the following two large poems: First, the "Theogonia," a history in verse, of the origin of the gods and the creation of the world. Second, "Works and Days," a didactic poem, on the duties and occupations of life, and a calendar of lucky and unlucky days, for the use of farmers and sailors. These poems are of high value for the light they throw on the mythological conceptions of those early times, and for the vivid pictures of the hardships and pleasures of daily life, the superstitious observances, the homely

wisdom of experience, and the proverbial philosophy into which that experience had been wrought. For the truthfulness of the delineation generally, all antiquity vouched; and there is in the style of expression and tone of thought a racy freshness redolent of the native soil. Hesiod was a man of keen practical observation, and had drawn, from both observation and experience, large stores of ethical and religious wisdom. He showed, at times, great brilliancy of imagination, and copiousness and vigor of expression; but he had not that instinctive sense of the beautiful and that natural perfectness of taste which rarely deserted Homer.

Hieron II., King of Syracuse. After distinguishing himself in the Sicilian war of Pyrrhus, he was chosen, in B. C. 275, general of the Syracusan army. He carried on war with the Mamertines. By a great victory, after which Hieron was proclaimed king of the Siceliots, (270,) he succeeded in shutting up the Mamertines within Messana. After the siege had lasted some years, they found themselves reduced to extremity; and to avoid a surrender, they asked and obtained the alliance of Rome. Hieron, in 264, allied himself with the Carthaginians, who had gained a footing in the island, and thus began the first Punic war. Defeated by Appius Claudius in the following year, Hieron made peace with the Romans, and became their faithful and very useful ally. Under his government his subjects enjoyed great prosperity; he made some excellent laws, which the Romans retained after their conquest of Sicily; avoided all parade of royalty; fostered commerce, and strengthened and beautified Syracuse. The mathematician Archimedes lived in his reign.

Hincmar, (? – 882,) Archbishop of Rheims, was born of a noble family in France, early in the 9th century. He assisted in reforming the rules of the abbey of St. Denis, was appointed abbot of Compiègne, and, in 845, archbishop of Rheims. He distinguished himself three years later by his rigorous treatment of the monk Gottschalk, who for his writings on predestination was condemned, flogged, and imprisoned. In subsequent disputes with Pope Nicholas I. and the emperor Louis III., he showed himself the fearless defender of the liberties of the Church. Hincmar presided at the council of Soissons in 862, and at that of Douzi in 871; he wrote numerous works, especially two treatises on Predestination, in opposition to the views of Gottschalk; was compelled to flee from Rheims on the approach of the Northmen, in 882, and died the same year at Epernay.

Hippias, (? – B. C. 490,) tyrant of Athens, was the son of Pisistratus, at whose death he assumed the government, in conjunction with his brother Hipparchus; but the latter being assassinated while conducting a solemn procession to the temple of Minerva, Hippias seized the reins of government, and put to death all of whom he entertained the least suspicion. His tyranny at last became so obnoxious to the citizens that he was expelled, B. C. 510. He afterward induced Darius to apply to the Athenians in his favor; and their decisive refusal to permit his return to his country kindled the first war of the Persians against the European Greeks.

Homer. The Trojan power had formed itself around Mount Ida. In the course of 300 years many nations had become subject to its king, who was considered the greatest potentate of Western Asia. Against him the princes of the Greek tribes associated themselves to avenge Menelaus, the king of Sparta, whose consort, Helen, had been carried away by Paris, the son of the Trojan monarch. The throne of Troy was finally overturned, after a ten years' war. The Iliad and Odyssey were probably sung by Homer about a century and a half after the destruction of the town of Troy. They are as old as David's Psalms. A hundred years after Homer, Lycurgus, the lawgiver of Sparta, brought these poems into Greece, and, three centuries later, Pisistratus gave them their perfect form. His son introduced the custom of reciting parts of them at the public festivals. A more complete edition of the Homeric poems was prepared by Aristotle for Alexander the Great, which he used to keep under his pillow, in a golden case. They are, by the consent of ages, the noblest of all poems. The orator, the historian, and the poet obtain from them equal instruction. A fine moral sentiment breathes through the whole. We behold, at one time, the ruinous consequences of violence and anarchy; at another, the power of moderation and reason. Obedience and freedom, heroism and military discipline, are recommended. Men appear as they are; all is action; nothing is idle or in stagnation. We are carried away from ourselves and instructed, without being conscious of it. He is the best teacher of the wisdom of human life.

Horatius Flaccus, Quintius, (**Horace**,) (65–8 B. C.,) one of the most eminent, and certainly the most popular and elegant of the Roman poets. At the age of 18 he went to Athens to complete his studies. While there, Marcus Brutus, passing through the city on his way to Macedonia, Horace, accompanied by other Roman youths, joined the army, became military tribune, fought in the last battle for the freedom of Rome at Philippi, and saved himself by flight. Though he saved his life, he forfeited his estate, and was reduced to great straits, till Virgil introduced him to Mæcenas, by whose interest he recovered his patrimony. Augustus now became his friend, and offered to make him his secretary, which Horace declined. When Mæcenas was sent to Brundusium, to conclude a treaty between Augustus and Antony, he took with him Horace, Virgil, and other literary friends; and, not long after, he presented Horace with the Sabine farm, to which he withdrew from the tumult of Rome, preferring retirement to a more brilliant life. His poems consist of odes, satires, and epistles, one of the latter, addressed to the Pisos, being entitled "Ars Poetica." Seldom or never expressing the deepest feelings of our nature, nor breathing the higher inspirations of poetic genius, they possess enduring charms as works of exquisite art, and display the keenest observation of manners, intense enjoyment of nature and rural life, great relish for the pleasures of sense, and a pathetic, haunting regret for the shortness and sadness of human life.

Hugh Capet, (939–996,) founder of the third race of French kings, was count of Paris and Orleans. He was the son of Hugh the Great, whom he succeeded as duke of France; was proclaimed king of France, at Noyon, in 987, and died in 996, aged 57. The accession of this third race far exceeds in importance that of the second. Strictly speaking, it constitutes the end of the reign of the Franks, and the substitution of a national monarchy for a government founded on conquest. This national identity is the foundation on which the dynastic unity has, for so many ages, rested. The people seem to have had a singular presentiment of this long succession of kings, on the accession of the third race. The report ran that, in 981, St. Valery, whose relics Hugh Capet had just had translated, appeared to him in a dream, and said, "For what thou hast done, thou and thy descendants shall be kings to the seventh generation—that is, forever."

Huss, John, (1375–1415.) One of the most celebrated universities of Europe was that of Prague, in Bohemia. John Huss, the rector of the university, had opposed himself to many customs then prevailing in the Church. This Huss was quite as much a politician as a theologian. He wrote in the vernacular tongue, defended the nationality of Bohemia against foreigners, and withstood the Popes especially as being foreigners. But he did not attack the papacy itself. He repaired to the Council of Constance, under a safe-conduct from the emperor Sigismund. In violation of this pledge, he was condemned to be burned, and his disciple, Jerome of Prague, underwent afterward the same fate. The Bohemians, aroused by this atrocity, flew to arms. Led by the little Procop and by the one-eyed Zisca, they carried everything before them, and on Procop's death the drum made of his skin continued to lead these barbarians, and beat through Germany its murderous roll.

Hyksos, (1750 B. C.) The nomadic nations have always envied the wealth and luxury which agriculture, commerce, and art have procured for their more civilized neighbors; and when these have been weakened by luxury, they have found them an easy conquest. Thus Egypt fell into the power of the Arabians, in the same way that, somewhat later, the Chaldæan empire had to yield to them. The Arabians who conquered Egypt were called by the conquered, Hyksos, which means "shepherd kings." Their occupation of Egypt was probably owing, not solely to a mere love of conquest, but to the desire of maintaining a right they claimed to the throne through marriage with the royal family, or to an invitation from some one of the inferior Egyptian princes who had been dispossessed of his government. Either of these would account for their having obtained possession of part of Lower Egypt "without a battle," and for their having received assistance from some of the Egyptians. Nor was their rule like that of a people who had entered the country for the sake of conquest: their religion was different, and they treated that of the Egyptians with disrespect; but they were at one time on terms of amity with some of the kings of other parts of the Nile valley; and they so augmented the power of the country they governed, that on their expulsion Egypt rose immediately to a most flourishing condition. The shepherds were expelled by the kings of the 18th dynasty. It was under this renowned race that Egypt reached that

climax of civilization, art, and conquest which is recorded on its monuments. Except the Pyramids, all other Egyptian monuments were erected immediately after the expulsion of the Hyksos. From that time date the vast temples, with their obelisks and sphinxes, the huge colossal statues, and the paintings of life on the tombs of Thebes. From this period, too, the Greeks derived those traditions of Egyptian prowess which they personified in the conqueror Sesostris.

I.

Iconoclasts, The, (740 A. D.,) the destroyers of images. The 8th century gave birth to a religious contest, in its nature and in its important political consequences entirely different from all those which had hitherto distracted Christendom. Iconoclasm was an attempt of the Eastern emperor to change by his own arbitrary command the religion of his subjects. It swept away from almost all the churches of the empire objects hallowed by devotion, objects of hope and fear, of gratitude and immemorial veneration. The consequences of this new religious dissension were of the utmost political importance, both in the East and in the West. But its more important results were the total disruption of the bond between the East and the West; the severance of the Italian province from the Byzantine empire; the great accession of power to the papacy, which took the lead in this revolution; the introduction of the Frankish kings into the politics of Italy; and eventually the establishment of the Western empire under Charlemagne.

Iconoclasts, The, (1566 B. C.) The anti-Catholic movement was spreading about this time in the Netherlands. The churches in and about St. Omer, Ypres, and other places were broken into, and the images and ornaments destroyed or defaced; like scenes took place in the cathedral of Antwerp. The disturbances spread into Holland, Utrecht, Friesland — everywhere, in short, except a few places in the southern provinces; in less than a fortnight 400 churches were sacked in Flanders alone. This proved to be the prelude to the rebellion of Holland against Spain, which finally ended in the establishment of the Dutch republic.

Ina, (? – 728,) King of the West Saxons, a valiant prince and an able legislator, succeeded Ceadwalla, in 688. Having obtained advantages over the people of Kent, in 694, he wrested Somersetshire and other parts of the west of England from the Britons. He afterward made war upon the Mercians; but the latter part of his reign was spent in works of peace; and having resigned his crown in 728, he went to Rome, founded an Anglo-Saxon colony or school, and died there the same year. Ina's school at Rome was further endowed with the Romescot, by Offa of Mercia, about 794, and disappears from history in the 10th century. The laws of Ina served as the foundation of those of Alfred, and some of them are still extant.

Independence of Chili. See CHILI.

Innocent III., (1161–1216,) one of the most eminent of the Popes. He succeeded Celestine III. in 1198, and being endowed by nature with all the talents of a ruler, he was better qualified than any of his predecessors to extend the papal power. His first care was to recover and secure such portions of the domains of the Holy See as were in the hands of usurpers. He applied himself earnestly to the improvement of the administration of justice in his estates, and, with his high notions of papal supremacy, he expected that all great questions, civil as well as ecclesiastical, should be decided by himself. He sought to unite the Christian princes in a crusade for the recovery of Palestine, and shortly afterward he began a cruel persecution of the Albigenses. He had put France under an interdict, because Philip Augustus divorced his queen, Ingeburga; and when John, king of England, refused to confirm the election of Stephen Langton as archbishop of Canterbury, Innocent laid the kingdom under an interdict, and, in 1212, formally deposed John, and instigated the king of France to attack England. John was finally obliged to submit, resigned his territories to Rome, and received them as a papal fief from Innocent, from whom he was unable to obtain absolution until he had paid large sums of money. In 1210 the Pope excommunicated the emperor Otto IV., who owed to him his eleva-

tion. Innocent abolished the Roman senate and consulate, and thus made himself absolute in his estates, which now extended from the Adriatic to the Mediterranean. Almost all Christendom was now subject to the Pope; two crusades were undertaken at his order, and his influence extended even to Constantinople. He enforced purity of morals in the clergy, and was himself irreproachable in private life.

Isaiah, (about 700 B. C.) The name signifies Salvation of Jahu, (a shortened form of Jehovah.) The greater number of the prophets, in bold denunciations, full of wrath and anguish, but never abandoning all hope, lamented, threatened, and chastised the crimes and follies of the falling monarchy of Samaria. But it was Isaiah, in Jerusalem, who took the loftiest flight, and surveyed all the evils that were springing up in the surrounding states, in the corruption of their manners and their laws, and which afforded cause for alarm to them and to their people, to his own and to all future times. As he lived at that epoch when the spirit of conquest began to rage more extensively and with greater violence, his work is a precursor of all the complaints which have been uttered to the present day against this evil and its devastations, and a general prophecy of the calamities that have befallen the world in consequence of such disorders. One single assurance supports him amid present afflictions, viz., the conviction that the germ of true religion and pure morality, which for thousands of years had been preserved in Israel, would obtain at length a champion, who, although through suffering, should find the way to victory. Little as it became a Roman to doubt of the fortunes of the eternal Rome, far less could a descendant of those Hebrews who had often experienced such wonderful deliverances, who had been saved by Moses, by Othniel, Ehud, Barak, Gideon, Jephthah, Samson, Samuel, Saul, and David — far less could one who knew well the dignity of his Law, and the unfailing power of his God, doubt concerning that hope, that certain assurance for the Hebrew nation and the royal house, which so often had been conceived in lofty inspiration, and amid increasing perils had only been the more eagerly embraced and the more explicitly declared.

Isocrates, (436–338 B. C.) To Isocrates Athenian eloquence is most deeply indebted. He was the founder of the most flourishing school of rhetoric, and numbered the most distinguished orators (Æschines, Demosthenes, etc.,) among his pupils. He was naturally timid and of a weakly constitution, for which reasons he abstained from taking any direct part in the political affairs of his country, and resolved to contribute toward the development of eloquence, by teaching and writing, and thus to guide others in the path for which his own constitution unfitted him. Isocrates has the great merit of being the first who clearly saw the value and objects of oratory, in its practical application to public life and the affairs of the state. At the same time he endeavored to base public oratory upon sound moral principles, and thus to rescue it from the influence of the Sophists.

Issus, Battle of, (333 B. C.) The gulf of Issus forms the most northeast point of the Mediterranean. Near the head of this gulf Alexander defeated the Persian army under Darius; 100,000 Persians fell, and their king escaped with difficulty. The rich camp of the Persians, with the magnificent royal tent, the mother, wife, two daughters, and a son of Darius, fell into the hands of the conqueror, who treated the prisoners with his accustomed clemency.

J.

Jane Grey. See GREY.

Jerome. See ST. JEROME.

Jerusalem, Destruction of. Jerusalem was situated in the heart of the mountain district which commences at the south of the great plain of Esdraelon, and is continued throughout the whole of Samaria and Judæa, quite to the southern extremity of the Promised Land. It is almost equidistant from the Mediterranean and from the river Jordan, being about 30 miles from each, and situated at an elevation of 2,000 feet above the level of the Mediterranean. The particulars of the siege by Titus are

fully detailed by Josephus. It occupied nearly 100,000 men, little short of five months, having been commenced on the 14th of April, and terminated with the capture and conflagration of the Upper City on the 8th of September. This is to be accounted for by the fact that, not only did each of the three walls, but also the fortress and the temple, require to be taken in detail, so that the operations involved five distinct sieges. This memorable siege has been thought worthy of special mention by Tacitus, and his lively abridgment of Josephus must have served to raise his countrymen's ideas both of the military prowess and of the powers of endurance of the Jews.

Jerusalem, Kingdom of, (1099–1291 A. D.) The result of the first Crusade was the establishment of the kingdom of Jerusalem, of which Godfrey of Bouillon was the first king. This kingdom of Jerusalem had no easy task, surrounded as it was by powerful and naturally implacable foes: the danger from the east was especially great, in case any leader of eminence should arise among the vigorous and warlike Seljukes, reconcile the dissentient emirs, and then break into the country with a united force. The early kings of Jerusalem, especially Baldwin II., had a vivid conception of this danger. If all the Christians had shared the ideas of their kings, their plans for consolidating the kingdom would in all probability have been carried out, and perhaps a lasting foundation of European power and civilization would have been laid in those lands. The heroes who shook their lances so gallantly in Christ's honor were quite incapable of understanding the political motives and consequences of their undertaking. Instead of striving to frame their society according to religious principles, and then allowing politics to obey political rules, and war military ones, they started upon the supposition that the very existence of their dominion was a wonder of God's own working; and they were convinced that for every fresh danger which threatened it, God had a new miracle in store. They were soon to discover that such a notion was as destructive to religion and morality as to political and warlike success. The result was that it did not last a century, and that under the eighth king, (Guy of Lusignan,) Jerusalem was taken by Saladin, (October 2d, 1187.) Since that time the crown of Jerusalem conveyed only an empty title. (See CRUSADES, Appendix, page 196.)

Joan of Arc, (1412–1431.) In the autumn of 1428, the English army threatened Orleans, the most important of the towns still remaining faithful to the Dauphin: they had made themselves masters of the bridge and the outworks, notwithstanding the bravery of the garrison. Lastly, the defeat of the French and Scotch at the battle of the Herrings appeared to give the finishing stroke to the fall of that town, and to inflict a mortal wound upon the cause of Charles. The news of this distress reached, at last, a peaceful valley of Lorraine. There a girl listened to the news with panting breast. She left her native hamlet of Domremy for Vaucouleurs, where she so importuned the governor, Baudricourt, that he sent her on to Charles at Chinon. After some hesitation, Charles accepted her proffered service, and she was accordingly intrusted with the important duty of throwing provisions into the town of Orleans. She succeeded. The tide of fortune from this moment turned. The siege of Orleans was raised, and the Dauphin, advancing to Rheims, was crowned king of France, under the title of Charles VII. After the coronation, Joan declared that her mission was at an end, and that she should now retire to private life; but the French commander, Dunois, who thought she might still prove serviceable, induced her to throw herself into Compiègne. Here, after performing prodigies of valor, she was taken prisoner in a sally; and, after four months of imprisonment, was cruelly condemned by the English to be burnt alive on the charge of sorcery. She resolutely defended herself from the absurd accusation, but was carried to the stake, where with dauntless courage she met her fate, in the 29th year of her age, May 30th, 1431. The story of the Maid is told with great freshness in "The Life and Death of Jeanne d'Arc," by Harriet Parr, (1866.)

John de Witt. See DE WITT.

Jugurtha, King of Numidia, was the son of Manastabal and grandson of Masinissa. Micipsa, his uncle, left him the kingdom jointly with his own sons, Hiempsal and Adherbal. On the death of Micipsa, B. C. 118, Jugurtha aimed at the sole power, put Hiempsal to death, and made war on Adherbal, who, however, by the aid of the Romans, recovered his dominions. He finally lost them, and was killed by his rival in 112. Jugurtha was now the sole ruler of Numidia. He was a man of superior talents, and was remarkable for strength and personal beauty. Formed for a soldier, his valor and

conduct had won for him in early youth the esteem of the Roman army and the friendship of Scipio; but, for his intrigues and crimes, the Romans now made war on him. Their generals, however, took bribes, and failed to subdue him, till Sulla persuaded Bocchus, king of Mauritania, to draw Jugurtha into his power, and deliver him up to the Romans. He was accordingly seized, and conducted to Rome, were he was thrown into a dark prison and starved to death.

Julianus, surnamed "The Apostate," (331–363,) Roman Emperor, was the youngest son of Constantius, brother of Constantine the Great. He was educated in the tenets of Christianity, but returned to paganism. In 354 he was declared Cæsar, and sent to Gaul, where he obtained several victories over the Germans, and, in 361, the troops in Gaul revolted from Constantius, and declared for Julian. During the lifetime of his cousin Constantius, he had made profession of the orthodox faith; but, on succeeding to the throne, he threw off all disguise, reopened the heathen temples, and sought to restore the heathen worship in all its splendor, while he labored, both by his pen and his authority, to destroy Christianity. He took from the Christian churches their riches, and divided them among his soldiers. He sought likewise to induce the Christians, by flattery or by favor, to embrace paganism; but failing in the attempt, he shut up their schools, prohibited them from teaching grammar and rhetoric, and published an edict that the name of Christian should be abolished. His malice was further evinced by extraordinary indulgence to the Jews, and by an attempt to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem, that the prophecy of Christ might be falsified; but it is said that flames of fire rose from beneath, and consumed some of the workmen, by which miraculous interposition the design was frustrated.

Justinian I., the Great, (483–565,) the great Emperor of the East, was the nephew of Justinus I. He shared the fortunes of his uncle, who, born a Thracian peasant, was raised to the imperial throne; and at whose death, in 527, he obtained the exclusive sovereignty. During his reign the pristine glory of the imperial arms was restored by his great general Belisarius. The event, however, which has rendered the reign of Justinian most memorable, is the reformation of the Roman jurisprudence. He commissioned Tribonian to revise the existing laws, to purge the errors and contradictions, and to select the wise and salutary enactments. To this code Justinian added the "Pandects," the Institutions, and the Novellæ, since called collectively the body of civil law, (corpus juris civilis.) Justinian died after a reign of 38 years, and in the 83d year of his age.

Juvenal, (80 A. D.,) a Roman poet and satirist. He may be said to have been the last of the Roman poets, and as the bold and unflinching castigator of vice he stands without a rival. Good as are his intentions, however, and forcible as are his denunciations, the moral indelicacy of the age in which he lived renders these powerful satires too gross in their details for readers of the present day. English translations have been made by Dryden, Gifford, and others.

K.

Kant, Emmanuel, (1724–1804,) the great founder of the critical philosophy. He was appointed professor in the university of Königsberg, in 1770. For a long time his studies were chiefly of physical science, astronomy, mechanics, etc., and among his early works are "Thoughts on the True Valuation of Vital Forces," "General History of Nature and Theory of the Heavens," "Theory of the Winds," etc. It was not till 1781 that he published his "Critical Inquiry into the Nature of Pure Reason," which contains the system commonly known under the title of the "Critical Philosophy." A second part of it, published in 1783, bore the title of "Prolegomena for Future Metaphysics." Kant was a man of high intellectual endowments; and was no less distinguished by a profound love of truth and a pure moral sentiment; and his "Critical Philosophy" for a time superseded every other in the Protestant universities of Germany. Dissatisfied both with the dogmatism and the doubt which in his day disputed the field of philosophy, he sought a new path and a higher end. His method was fundamentally an investigation of the faculty of knowledge

in man, and he carefully distinguished that part of knowledge which answers truly to objects (the objective) from that which merely pertains to the thinking mind or subject (the subjective.) His system was met by vigorous opposition, but over all hinderances it held its way, and the whole course of human thought has been modified by it. "The 'Critical Philosophy,'" says Carlyle, "has been regarded by persons of approved judgment as distinctly the greatest intellectual achievement of the century in which it came to light. Schlegel has stated in plain terms his belief that, in respect to its probable influence on the moral culture of Europe, it stands on a line with the Reformation. The noble system of morality, the purer theology, the lofty views of man's nature derived from it," have influenced for good the whole spiritual character of Germany and of Europe.

Kaunitz, (1711–1794,) one of the most remarkable statesmen of the 18th century, and the greatest minister that Austria ever possessed. After a careful education, completed by foreign travel, he entered the service of Charles VI., and, after the death of that emperor, was employed by Maria Theresa in various missions, in the discharge of which his abilities procured for him her entire confidence. His success was, perhaps, in no small degree owing to the singular combination of qualities in his character. Under the easy exterior of a man of the world were concealed acute penetration, deep reflection, impenetrable reserve, indomitable perseverance. Even his bitter adversary, Frederick II., was forced to acknowledge the depth and power of his intellect. The energies of this remarkable man were directed, during 40 years, to one object — the aggrandizement of the house of Austria.

Kempis, Thomas à, (1380–1471,) reputed author of the famous book "De Imitatione Christi." He entered the monastery of Mount St. Agnes, of which his brother was prior, and, being a good copyist, was chiefly engaged in making copies of the Bible and religious treatises. In a collection of his beautiful manuscripts was the "Imitation of Christ," which was afterward attributed to him as author. The "Imitation" is the most universally translated book in the world next to the Bible. Its various editions and translations amounted, in 1828, to more than two thousand. Its singular charm and power are confessed by thoughtful men of all sects, who hear in it, says a recent critic, "the voice of human nature struggling in its weakness, its disappointments, and its consciousness of a capacity for a life that shall be a real life and not a fever, when the cage is broken and the veil is rent asunder." It is distinguished from too many religious books by its clearness, honesty, simplicity, and freedom from exaggeration and morbidities.

Klopstock, Friederich Gottlieb, (1724–1803,) a celebrated German poet. After receiving a liberal education at his native place, he was sent to study theology at Jena, and there wrote a great part of his "Messiah," which he published in 1748. Though this poem underwent the ordeal of severe criticism, it was admired by the majority. Klopstock was invited into Switzerland, and while there the people regarded him with a kind of veneration. Thence he was attracted to Copenhagen by flattering promises, which were amply fulfilled. In 1771 he went to reside at Hamburg as Danish ambassador, and counsellor from the court of Baden. Klopstock was, perhaps, most successful as a lyrical writer. His patriotism is strong and ardent; and his later odes, called forth by the French Revolution, in which at first he took the warmest interest, are distinguished by bold and original turns of expression. His tragedies were not calculated for the stage; and his greatest work, "The Messiah," did not fulfil the expectations of his countrymen, who predicted that it would eclipse the Paradise Lost of Milton. Like Milton's great work, it is said to be more commonly praised than read.

L.

Lactantius, an eminent father of the Church. By his "Symposium" he obtained such renown that Diocletian appointed him public teacher of rhetoric. He wrote many works in vindication of Christianity, from the style of which he has been honored with the name of the Christian Cicero. His principal work is the "Institutiones Divinæ," in 7 books. Died, probably, about 325.

Lafayette, (1757–1834,) one of the most conspicuous characters in France during the Revolution. He went, in 1777, to take part in the war of independence in America. He there raised and equipped a body of men at his own expense; fought as a volunteer at the battle of Brandywine, in 1777; at that of Monmouth, in 1778, and received the thanks of Congress. He then proceeded to France, in order to obtain reinforcements; returned with the armaments under General Rochambeau, and commanded Washington's vanguard at the time of the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, in 1782. The capitulation of Yorktown followed, and, on the peace with the mother country, the general returned to France. He was elected a member of the assembly of the notables, in 1787, and, on the breaking out of the Revolution, he took part with the friends of liberty, though with wise moderation. In 1792 he was obliged to escape from France, but fell into the hands of the Austrians, who imprisoned him at Olmütz. There he remained five years. His noble wife wrote to Washington in his behalf, which proving in vain, she joined her husband in his prison in 1795, and there remained with him till after Bonaparte's first campaign in Italy, when, on the special demand of the latter, Lafayette was set at liberty, in 1797. Lafayette, however, was consistent: he voted against the "consulate for life," and withdrew from public affairs. But, after the battle of Waterloo, he reappeared, to protest against a dictatorship; and, having subsequently protested against the dissolution of the legislative body by Prussian bayonets, again withdrew to his estates, till he was returned, in 1818, deputy. On all occasions, in the chamber of deputies, and elsewhere, he proved himself the friend of real liberty. In 1821 he made a visit to America, and was received with distinction and popular enthusiasm, as joint founder of American independence with Washington and Franklin. The unconstitutional ordinances of Charles X., in June, 1830, which caused his own expulsion, brought Lafayette on the stage again, in the character in which he commenced his career, that of commander-in-chief of the national guard, and the advocate and supporter of a citizen king. He soon after resigned the command; and, having seen Louis Philippe recognized as king of the French, he once more retired to the tranquil scenes of domestic life. Died, 1834.

La Hogue, Battle of, (1692 A. D.) After William of Orange had been placed on the throne of England, (1689,) he yet found himself exposed to the treachery of the men from whom he might reasonably have expected support. Among those who were ready to betray the cause of the prince whom they had recently placed on the throne, and to enter into correspondence with the exiled monarch, were Lords Halifax, Godolphin, Shrewsbury, and Marlborough. Information secretly sent by the latter to the court of France led to the failure of an attempt, made on the part of the English, in 1694, to destroy the arsenal at Brest. The cause of the adherents of James was, at the same time, strengthened by the occurrence of the massacre of the MacDonalds of Glencoe, in virtue of a warrant signed by William, to gratify the private revenge of a Scotch nobleman, Lord Breadalbane. A plan for a rising by the Jacobites, in concert with a French fleet, was arranged. The attempt to re-establish James on the throne of England might have succeeded, had it not been for the victory of La Hogue, where the French fleet was defeated by Admiral Russell.

Latin War. See Appendix, page 185.

Law, John, (1681–1729,) a celebrated financial projector. He was bred to no profession, but studied mathematics, and particularly excelled as an accountant. For the purpose of remedying the deficiency of a circulating medium, he projected the establishment of a bank, with paper issues, to the amount of the value of all the lands in the kingdom; but this scheme was rejected. Being obliged to leave England, he went to France, where he secured the patronage of the regent duke of Orleans, and established his bank at Paris. To this was joined the Company of the Mississippi, a pretended scheme for paying off the national debt, and for enriching the subscribers. The project became extravagantly popular, and every one converted his gold and silver into paper. In 1720, Law was made comptroller of the finances. The bubble, however, burst; the people, enraged, besieged the palace of the regent, and Law was exiled to Pontoise, whence he escaped to Italy, and died at Venice, in 1729.

Laws of the Twelve Tables. See Appendix, page 181.

League of Augsburg. See Augsburg.

Leo I., surnamed the Great, Pope. Leo, like most of his great predecessors and successors, was a Roman. He was early devoted to the service of the Church. At the decease of Pope Sixtus, Leo was absent on a civil mission,

to reconcile the two rival generals, Aëtius and Albinus, whose fatal quarrel hazarded the dominion of Rome in Gaul. There was no delay; all Rome, clergy, senate, people, by acclamation, raised the absent Leo to the vacant see. With the self-confidence of a commanding mind, he assumed the office in the pious assurance that God would give him strength to fulfil the arduous duties so imposed. Leo was a Roman in sentiment as in birth. All that survived of Rome, of her inflexible perseverance, her haughtiness of language, and in her indefeasible title to universal dominion, might seem concentred in him alone. The union of the churchman and the Roman is singularly displayed in his sermons. They are brief, simple, severe; without fancy, without metaphysic subtlety, without passion; it is the Roman censor animadverting with nervous majesty on the vices of the people; the Roman prætor dictating the law and delivering with authority the doctrine of the faith. They are singularly Christian—Christian as dwelling almost exclusively on Christ, his birth, his passion, his resurrection. Leo condemns the whole race of heretics, from Arius down to Eutyches; but the more immediate, more dangerous, more hateful adversaries of the Roman faith were the Manicheans. That sect was constantly springing up in all quarters of Christendom with a singularly obstinate vitality. Leo wrote to the bishops of Italy, exhorting them to search out these pestilent enemies of Christian faith and virtue. The emperor Valentinian III., by the advice of Leo, issued an edict by which the Manicheans were to be banished from the whole world. They were to be liable to all the penalties of sacrilege. The cause of the severity of the law was their flagrant and disgraceful immorality. When Attila invaded Italy, Leo was sent by the Emperor Valentinian to dissuade him from his threatened march on Rome, and Rome was saved. Leo afterward saved the city from being burned by Genseric. Leo is the first Pope of whom we possess any written works. Died, 461.

Leonard da Vinci. See VINCI.

Lessing, Gotthold Ephraim, (1729–1781,) a distinguished German critic, dramatist, and miscellaneous writer. Lessing's great aim was to infuse new spirit into the literature of his country, and to refine and polish its style, and he succeeded. His writings are among the classics of German literature, and are especially distinguished for masterly criticism, forcible reasoning, and clear, nervous style. "He thinks," says Carlyle, "with the clearness and piercing sharpness of the most expert logician; but a genial fire pervades him, a wit, a heartiness, a general richness and fineness of nature, to which most logicians are strangers." Among his dramatic works are "Miss Sara Samson," "Minna von Barnholm," "Emilia Galotti," and "Nathan the Wise." Coleridge was a diligent student of Lessing's works, and some passages in the "Confessions of an Inquiring Spirit" were made the ground of a charge of plagiarism from Lessing.

Leyden, Siege of, (1574 A. D.,) one of the most important cities of the Netherlands, 22 miles southwest of Amsterdam, and 17 miles north of Rotterdam, on the Old Rhine, six miles from its mouth in the North Sea. The most memorable event in the history of Leyden is the siege it sustained from the Spaniards in 1573–4. By the resolution and heroic example of Pieter Adriaan-zoon Van der Werff, the burgomaster, the inhabitants were enabled to stand out nearly four months. For seven weeks there was no bread within the walls, and when hunger became no longer bearable, and the people, dying in hundreds, implored the burgomaster to surrender the town, he offered his body to appease their appetite, and thus the most clamorous were abashed. To relieve the town, the prince of Orange at last broke down the dikes, and, a favoring wind accompanying, the waters came over the lands so rapidly that above 1,000 of the besiegers were drowned. The same wind wafted a fleet of 200 boats from Rotterdam to the gates of Leyden, and relieved the place. As a manifestation of the gratitude entertained by the people of Holland and Zealand for the heroism of the citizens, it was resolved that a university should be established within their walls. The university of Leyden, afterward so illustrious, was thus founded in the very darkest period of the country's struggles.

Livius, Titus, (**Livy,**) (B. C. 59–17,) the celebrated Roman historian, was born in the territory of Padua. He went early to Rome, and there chiefly resided, enjoying the patronage of the emperor Augustus and the friendship of many distinguished men. His reputation was widely spread during his lifetime, and one curious Spaniard was attracted to Rome merely to look at Livy and return. His reputation is built upon his History of Rome from the foundation of the city to the death of Drusus, in 142 books, of which only 35 have been preserved. The rest are partly known to us

by means of some extant epitomes. While Livy charms us by his clear, flowing, and beautiful style, and while we feel that we possess in his annals one of the most valuable relics of ancient literature, modern critical inquiry has made it impossible that we should accept his account of things as true and trustworthy. His patriotic partisanship, his ignorance of practical life, his want of acquaintance with original authorities, and his uncritical habit of mind, are very serious drawbacks from his character as historian. An English translation of Livy is included in Bohn's Classical Library.

Locke, John, (1632–1704,) one of the most eminent philosophers of modern times. He was educated at Westminster School, and Christ-church College, Oxford, where he distinguished himself by his general proficiency; and finally applied himself to the study of medicine. When, in 1762, Lord Shaftesbury was appointed lord chancellor, he made Locke secretary of presentations, and, at a later period, secretary to the Board of Trade. On his patron retiring to Holland, Locke accompanied him, and remained there several years. So obnoxious was he to James II., that the English envoy demanded Mr. Locke of the States, on suspicion of his being concerned in Monmouth's rebellion, which necessitated his temporary concealment. As philosopher, Locke stands at the head of what is called the sensational school, in England. His great work is the "Essay on the Human Understanding," in which he endeavors to show that all our ideas are derived from experience, that is, through the senses, and reflection on what they reveal to us. He also investigates the general character of ideas, the association of ideas, the reality, limits, and uses of knowledge, the influence of language, and the abuses to which it is liable. This Essay was first published in 1690, and became immediately popular. It passed through numerous editions in rapid succession, and was translated into French and Latin. Whatever may be thought of Locke's theories, his Essay has a solid and permanent worth, and will not cease to attract and charm inquirers and lovers of truth. His other works are the "Treatise on Civil Government," "Letters on Toleration," "On the Conduct of the Understanding," "Vindication of the Reasonableness of Christianity." His Life, by Lord King, was published in 1829.

Longfellow, Henry Wadsworth, (1807–.) At the age of 14 he entered Bowdoin College, where he took his degree with high honors in 1825, and was for a few months a law student in the office of his father. Having been offered a professorship of modern languages in Bowdoin College, with the view of qualifying himself for the post he spent three years and a half in travelling. Returning to the United States in 1829, he entered upon the duties of his office. On the resignation of the late Mr. G. Ticknor, in 1835, of his professorship of modern languages and of the belles-lettres in Harvard College, Longfellow was appointed to the vacancy. He gave up his chair at Bowdoin College, and again went abroad in order to become more thoroughly acquainted with the languages and literature of Northern Europe, and having travelled more than 12 months in Scandinavia, Germany, and Switzerland, returned in the autumn of 1836, to enter upon his duties at Cambridge. In 1854 he resigned, and has lived since in retirement at Cambridge. While an undergraduate, he wrote many tasteful and carefully finished poems for the United States Literary Gazette, and while professor at Bowdoin College, contributed some valuable criticisms to the North American Review. His principal works are "Outre Mer," "Hyperion," "The Poets and Poetry of Europe," "Evangeline," "Kavanagh," "The Song of Hiawatha," "Miles Standish," and his translation of Dante in 1867. No American poet is so popular and well known in Europe.

Longinus, a celebrated Greek critic and philosopher of the 3d century. In his youth he travelled for improvement to Rome, Athens, and Alexandria, and attended all the eminent masters in eloquence and philosophy. At length he settled at Athens, where he taught philosophy, and where he also published his "Treatise on the Sublime." His knowledge was so extensive that he was called "the living library;" and his fame having reached the ears of Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, she invited him to her court, intrusted to him the education of her two sons, and took his advice on political affairs. But this distinction proved fatal to him; for, after the surrender of Palmyra, Aurelian put him to death for having advised Zenobia to resist the Romans, and as author of the spirited letter which the queen addressed to the emperor. His death took place in 273 A. D. He met his fate with calmness and fortitude, saying to his friends, "*The world is but a prison; happy therefore is he who gets soonest out of it, and gains his liberty.*"

Lopez de Vega. See VEGA.

Lorraine becomes French, (1738 A. D.) Stanislaus Leczinski was elected king of Poland, on the designation of Charles XII. of Sweden, in July 1704; his predecessor, Frederick Augustus, having been deposed. After the defeat of Charles VII. by the Russians at Pultowa, in 1709, Stanislaus lost his throne, and Augustus was restored. He was again elected king of Poland, in 1733, through the influence of Louis XV. of France, who had married his daughter Maria; but he was compelled to retire, and after most romantic adventures reached France in June, 1736. In 1738 he was made duke of Lorraine for life. He was able to be a real benefactor to his country, owing to the wholly new position toward France that had been given to it. From a continually suspected and continually oppressed neighbor, Lorraine became the protégé of France, while waiting till it should become wholly French. As early as 1738, a royal declaration admitted the people of Lorraine to all the advantages of native-born Frenchmen; the union was already morally consummated. The final union happened in 1766.

Louis I., (778–840,) King of France and Emperor, was the son of Charlemagne. Named king of Aquitaine at his birth, associated in the empire in 813, he succeeded his father in 814, and was crowned with his queen Hermengerda, by Pope Stephen IV., at Rheims, in 816. He soon after associated his son Lothaire with him in the empire, and at the same time made partition of his dominions between his sons Lothaire, Pepin, and Louis; naming the first king of Italy, the second king of Aquitaine, and the third king of Bavaria. Bernard, king of Italy, revolted on this occasion, but was defeated and captured, and by order of Louis had his eyes put out. He died a few days later, and Louis was compelled to do public penance for his crime. About the same time he married, for his second wife, Judith, daughter of Welf, count of Bavaria; and having assigned a part of his dominions to Charles, his son by Judith, his other sons rebelled. He was twice deposed and reinstated on the throne; Judith was confined in a monastery at Poitiers; in 838, France was invaded by the Northmen and the Saracens; a fresh revolt of Louis of Bavaria broke out in 839; and the king, worn out with vexation, died on an island of the Rhine, below Mentz, June 20th, 840.

Louis VII., (1120–1180,) King of France. He succeeded his father in 1137, having the same year married Eleanor, heiress of Aquitaine. A quarrel with Pope Innocent II., in 1142, brought an interdict on his kingdom, and led to a war with Thibaut, count of Champagne. Louis took and pillaged Vitri, and burnt a church in which 1,300 persons had taken refuge; for which sacrilege he resolved, by the advice of St. Bernard, but against the counsel of his able minister, the abbot Suger, to go to the Holy Land. He received the cross at the hands of St. Bernard in 1146, and the next year set out at the head of a large host, his queen accompanying him. Well received by Manuel, emperor of the East, he lost a large part of his forces before he reached Antioch, in March, 1148. He joined the emperor Conrad at Jerusalem, and with him began the siege of Damascus; but failing in this, he returned to France at the end of 1149. He divorced his queen Eleanor in 1153, for her licentious conduct in the East, and the next year married Constance of Castile. Eleanor married, immediately after her divorce, Henry Plantagenet, afterward Henry II. of England, who thus became possessed of Guienne, the Limousin, and Poitou, the three fairest provinces of France.

Louis IX., or **St. Louis**, (1214–1270,) King of France, succeeded his father Louis VIII., in 1226. Being then only in his 12th year, he was placed under the guardianship of his mother, Blanche of Castile, who was made regent of the kingdom. A severe struggle was going on between the crown and some of the great feudal nobles, in which the latter were assisted by Henry III. of England. In 1243, Louis defeated the English in several engagements, and a truce for five years was concluded. Having made a vow in 1244, in the event of recovering from a dangerous disease, to march against the infidels in the Holy Land, he made preparations for doing so, and, in 1248, embarked at Aigues-Mortes, with an army of 50,000 men, accompanied by his queen, his brothers, and almost all the chivalry of France. He passed the winter in Cyprus, took Damietta in June, 1249, appeared before Mansourah in December, and won a victory over the Saracens there, February 8, 1250; but in April his army, worn out with fighting and sickness, was routed, and Louis was taken prisoner by the sultan of Egypt. A greater union of fortitude, punctilious honor, humanity, and personal bravery has seldom been witnessed in the conduct of a prince than was displayed by Louis throughout this expedition. Exorbitant terms were demanded as the price of the monarch's freedom, and a vast ransom

was also claimed for his followers. But the sultan, admiring the magnanimity of Louis, struck off a fifth of the sum for his personal ransom. Turan was soon after murdered. The terms being fulfilled, Louis embarked with about 6,000 men, the sole remains of his fine army, for Acre, and spent four years more in Palestine, but did not see Jerusalem. On his return to France, he applied himself to the government of his kingdom with exemplary diligence, good sense, impartiality, and moderation. Notwithstanding the disasters of his crusade, impelled by the strong religious enthusiasm which characterized him through life, he undertook a new one in 1270, the object of which was the conquest of both Egypt and Palestine. Tunis, however, was the first point of attack; but, while engaged at the siege of that place, a pestilence broke out among the French troops; and, after seeing one of his sons and a great part of his army perish, Louis was himself one of its victims, August 24th, 1270. Louis IX. was canonized by Boniface VIII., in 1297, and his Life was written by his friend, the Sire de Joinville.

Louis Sforza. See SFORZA.

Loyola, Ignatius, (1491–1556,) founder of the Society of Jesus. It was chiefly to the exertions of the Jesuits that the principles of the Reformers did not universally obtain footing. The founder of this order, Ignatius Loyola, a Spaniard, was a man of warm imagination and strong passions; and his whole soul, endued with these qualities, had abandoned itself in his early years to a vehement zeal for the religion which he professed. After having distinguished himself in war, especially against the infidels, he became the founder of a religious order. In the monastery of Montserrat, which is scarcely accessible, situated in a wilderness, and elevated above all the mountains of Catalonia, he copied the rules of a spiritual life which had been prescribed by a holy abbot. The original plan of the Order of Jesuits was simple, devout, and innocent; after the death of the author, it was improved first by Lainez, and afterward by Aquaviva, men who were endued with the deepest knowledge of human nature, and immutably steadfast in pursuit of one main object. They deserve, indeed, to be considered as the founders of a society which will bear a comparison with the great institutions of the lawgivers of antiquity: like them, it inspired its members with extraordinary activity, and infused a spirit of obedience so implicit, that the whole order resembled a healthy body actuated by a vigorous soul.

Lucianus, (Lucian,) a celebrated Greek author, was born at Samosata, during the reign of Trajan. He was of humble origin, and was placed while young with an uncle, to study sculpture, but being unsuccessful in his first attempts, he went to Antioch, and devoted himself to literature and forensic rhetoric. In the reign of Marcus Aurelius he was made procurator of the province of Egypt, and died when 90 years old. The works of Lucian, of which many have come down to us, are mostly in the form of dialogues; but none are so popular as those in which he ridicules the pagan mythology and philosophical sects. Many of them, however, though written in an elegant style, and abounding in wit, are tainted with profanity and indecency.

Luitprand, Bishop of Cremona in the 10th century, is distinguished as a diplomatist and historian. He was sent on two embassies to Constantinople; first, in 946, by Berengarius, then regent of Italy, and again in 965, by the emperor Otto I., to the usurper Phocas. He was also employed by Otto, in 962, on a mission to Pope John XII., and assisted at the council of Rome at which John was deposed. Luitprand was one of the most learned men of his time, and has left a very amusing narrative of his embassy to the East, besides a history of the emperor Otto the Great, and a history of Italy between 862–964. The works of Luitprand are our chief authority for the period they treat of. Died at Cremona, probably about 970.

Lundy's Lane, Battle of, (1814 A. D.) The United States of America, feeling themselves aggrieved at the interruption of their commerce occasioned by the famous "orders in council," and still further exasperated at the right of search claimed by England for English seamen on board American vessels, declared war against England, June 18th, 1812; and although the obnoxious orders had been revoked before the proclamation reached England, the States were too much excited to recall their declaration. The consequence was, the American forces advanced for the conquest of Canada. During the war, Scott's brigade was sent to the Falls of Niagara, (July 25th, 1814,) to watch the movements of a division of the enemy. On approaching the Falls, the Americans suddenly found themselves in the

presence of the whole British army, which was advantageously posted for a pitched battle. The victory was hotly contested on both sides, but midnight left the Americans in possession of the field. This battle of Lundy's Lane was one of the most hotly contested actions ever fought in the New World. Three thousand Americans, and 4,500 British took part in it. The former lost 743 in killed and wounded; the latter, 878.

Luther, Martin, (1483–1546.) He was destined by his father for the legal profession; but the impression produced upon him by the fate of his friend Alexis, who was struck dead by lightning while walking by his side on the road from Mansfeld to Erfurt, uniting with the effect of his early religious education, induced him to devote himself to the monastic life. He entered the monastery of the Augustines in 1505, and was, two years afterward, ordained priest. In 1508 he was made professor of philosophy in the new university of Wittenberg, in which position his powerful mind soon showed itself: he threw off the fetters of the scholastic philosophy, and attracted a large number of pupils. His profound learning, together with the fame of his eloquence, soon made Luther known to the principal scholars of the age. Great therefore was the attention excited by his ninety-five propositions, affixed to the church of Wittenberg castle, October 31st, 1517, and intended to put an end to the sale of indulgences by the Dominican Tetzel. They were condemned as heretical, and burnt; but neither menaces nor persuasions could induce him to recant. Being called to defend himself, he presented himself at the diet of Worms, April, 1521, before the emperor and a vast assemblage of the princes and prelates of Germany. He there made an elaborate defence, and concluded with these words: "Let me then be refuted and convinced by the testimony of the Scriptures, or by the clearest arguments: otherwise I cannot and will not recant; for it is neither safe nor expedient to act against conscience. Here I take my stand; I can do no otherwise, so help me God! Amen." Leaving Worms, the elector of Saxony conveyed him to the castle of Wartburg. Here Luther remained ten months, spending his days in laborious studies, and then returned to Wittenberg, where he published a sharp reply to Henry VIII., who had written a book against him, on the seven sacraments. In 1529 the emperor assembled another diet at Spire, to check the progress of the new opinions; and there it was that the name Protestants first arose, protest being made, on the part of the electoral princes, who supported the Reformation, against the rigorous impositions brought forward in this assembly. After this, the protesting princes determined to have a common confession of faith drawn up, which was accordingly prepared by Melancthon, and, being presented at the diet of Augsburg, in 1530, was called "The Confession of Augsburg." In 1534, Luther's translation of the whole Bible was published. At length, worn out more by labor than by age, Luther died at his native place, February 18th, 1546. His works are very numerous. In them he revived the Augustinian theory of the annihilation of liberty, and immolated free-will to grace and man to God. From his well-known "Table-Talk," Michelet extracted the substance of his very interesting "Life of Luther."

M.

Macchiavelli, Nicolo, (1469–1527,) for many years secretary of the republic of Florence, and justly celebrated for his political and historical writings. When he had scarcely completed his 29th year, he was appointed secretary to the general government. His ordinary occupation comprehended the political correspondence and the redaction of treaties with foreign states. But the Florentine government, justly appreciating his talents, were not long in extending his functions, and he was in consequence successively intrusted with no less than 23 foreign legations. Several writings of the Florentine secretary are regarded as estimable productions of a superior mind; others are considered as pernicious and containing abominable doctrines. But of all his works, that which has excited the greatest attention is the celebrated treatise entitled "Il Principe." This production, in which the ferocious Borgia is presented as a model to sovereigns who wish to govern absolutely, has acquired a deplorable reputation in Europe, and made the author himself be regarded by many as an incarnation of the evil principle.

Macedonian War, (200 B. C.) See Appendix, page 188.

Magellan, or Magelhaens, Ferdinand, (?–1521,) a celebrated Portuguese navigator, who, in 1509, discovered and passed the straits which have since been called by his name. His services not being valued by his own country, he offered them to Charles V. of Spain, who intrusted him with a fleet destined to attempt a westward passage to the Moluccas; hence his discovery. He was slain in 1521, in a skirmish with the natives of one of the Philippine Islands.

Mandeville, Sir John de, (?–1372), the earliest writer of English prose whose work survives. He left his native country in 1327; spent 34 years in visiting the Holy Land, Egypt, India, and China; and on his return, published an account of his travels, in Latin, which was afterward translated by himself into French, and thence into English. His work, full of most interesting details, freely interspersed with all sorts of wonderful and incredible tales, earned him an extraordinary reputation among his contemporaries, and was soon spread over Europe in various translations.

Manfred, (1233–1266,) Regent and afterward King of Sicily, was a natural son of the emperor Frederick II. and a noble Lombard lady, and was born about 1235. His father gave him the title of prince of Tarentum, and at his death, in 1250, named him regent of Sicily during the absence of the heir to the throne, (Conrad.) He quelled the revolts stirred up in Apulia by Pope Innocent IV., the bitter enemy of his father, and on the death of Conrad, in 1254, again became regent during the infancy of Conradino. Another general revolt broke out, but in the course of the two following years Manfred recovered his power; and, in 1258, on a report of the death of Conradino, he had himself crowned king of Palermo. He would not resign the crown on learning that the young prince was still living, but promised to leave it to him at his death. Manfred was excommunicated by Alexander IV., and by his successor, Urban IV.; the latter then offering the crown of Sicily to various princes. It was accepted by Charles of Anjou, and the Pope proclaimed a crusade against Manfred. Charles was crowned king at Rome in January, 1266, and immediately invaded Naples; the decisive battle was fought near Benevento, and Manfred, through the treachery of his Apulian troops, was defeated and killed, February 26th.

Marathon. In 490 B. C., Darius, king of Persia, sent his generals Dates and Artaphernes with the first of those prodigious armies with which the East has so often from that time overwhelmed the West. They sailed to Eubœa with an enormous fleet, took Erebria by treachery, and having crossed the channel into Attica, drew up their forces, which amounted to 100,000 men, on the plain of Marathon. This is a small plain in the northeastern part of Attica, somewhat in the form of a half-moon, the inner curve of which is bounded by the bay, and the outer by a range of mountains, through which two narrow passes led to Athens. These passes were covered by the Athenians. For nine days the armies stood opposite one another. Before the expiration of these nine days, the Persians had relinquished the plan of forcing the passes, and on the tenth day the fleet was already manned and the cavalry already on board. Then it was that Miltiades, who that day (September 12th, 490,) held the supreme command, ordered the Athenians to advance against the troops that were drawn up by the shore to cover the embarkation. The hosts of the great king were driven before the armed townsmen of Athens. They had no place whither to retreat and where they might form in order. They were driven into the morasses and there slain in numbers. The first great turning-point in the rise of the Athenian people is the day of Marathon. Nothing ever yet said of that day has exaggerated its immense importance to Greece and to the world.

Marcus Aurelius. See AURELIUS.

Marius, Caius, (B. C. 157–86,) a celebrated Roman general and popular leader, who was seven times consul. He first distinguished himself at the siege of Numantia; was tribune of the people B. C. 119; and ten years afterward went to Africa as lieutenant to the consul Metellus; superseded his commander, and obtained the consulship himself, after the subjugation of Jugurtha. When Italy was threatened soon after by the Cimbri and Teutones, Marius was chosen consul as the man most capable of successfully resisting them. The danger was, however, postponed for several years, and when, in B. C. 102, the conflict took place, Marius defeated, and,

indeed, destroyed the host of the Teutones at Aquæ Sextiæ, in Gaul, and with Catulus, in the following year, as completely overthrew the Cimbri, near Vercellæ. The conquerors shared the triumph, and Marius was called the third founder of Rome. In B. C. 90, he took part in the Social War, and his jealousy of Sulla began. Two years later Sulla was charged to conduct the war against Mithridates, but Marius succeeded in getting the command transferred to himself. At once Sulla marched to Rome with his army, and a civil war commenced to decide their superiority. Marius fled, wandered about on the coasts of Italy, and, after several escapes, was found by some horsemen in a marsh. He was conducted naked to Minturnæ, where the magistrate, after some deliberation, resolved to obey the orders of the senate and of Sulla. But the Cimbrian slave to whom the execution was intrusted, awed by the look and words of Marius, dropped his sword, and the people of Minturnæ, moved with compassion, conducted him to the coast, whence a vessel conveyed him to Africa. He landed at Carthage; but his party once more triumphing in Italy, he was recalled by Cinna and Sertorius, who making themselves masters of Rome, a terrible proscription took place. Marius enjoyed the dignity of consul for the seventh time, B. C. 86, and died shortly after, aged 70.

Marlborough, John Churchill, (1650–1722,) Duke of. After receiving a defective education, he was placed, at the age of 12, as page in the household of the duke of York. His passion for the life of a soldier was not long in showing itself, and from 1672–7, he served in the auxiliary force sent by Charles II. to Louis XIV., and so greatly distinguished himself that Turenne predicted his future eminence, and Louis XIV. gave him the highest praise at the head of the army. At the Revolution of 1688 he entered the service of the prince of Orange, and was created earl of Marlborough. On the breaking out of the war of the Spanish Succession in 1700, he received the chief command of the forces in the United Provinces, and was named ambassador to France. Marlborough was now to enter upon that career of military achievement which not only established his reputation as a general, but had most important results in the political state of Europe, especially in the destruction of the formidable preponderance of French power. As commander-in-chief of the allied forces he took several places in the Netherlands in 1702; with the Imperialists under Prince Eugène, gained the famous victory of Blenheim in 1704, for which the thanks of parliament were voted to him, and the manor of Woodstock conferred on him; defeated Marshal Villeroi at Ramillies in 1706, and closed the brilliant series of his victories by those of Oudenarde in 1708, and Malplaquet in 1709. A national thanksgiving was appointed for the latter victory. But a reverse of fortune was at hand. The popular discontent occasioned by heavy taxation, the belief that the war was prolonged chiefly by Marlborough's influence, and for selfish ends, and the increasing power of the Tory party, led to his dismissal from all his offices at the beginning of 1712. An unfavorable report had been given by the commission appointed to examine the charge of peculation brought against him, and, to escape the disquietude of a life at home, he went abroad with his duchess, who had also been displaced at court. Returning in 1714, George I. restored him to his offices, but he was soon after compelled by an attack of apoplexy to withdraw from public life, and he died at Windsor Lodge in 1722. The character of Marlborough presents a perplexing combination of noble and base qualities, which have served as the groundwork of extravagant eulogy and fierce invective. His rare ability as a general, his skill and success as a diplomatist, are unquestionable. No less so are his vast ambition, his avarice, and his treachery. There are numerous memoirs of Marlborough and his campaigns.

Marsic War, (90 B. C.) See Appendix, page 189.

Martialis, (43–?,) a celebrated Roman poet, was born in Spain, A. D. 43. At the age of 23 he went to Rome, where his talents soon gained him distinction. He enjoyed the favor of the emperor Domitian, who loaded him with honors, which he repaid with the most prodigal flattery and servility. Among the friends of Martial were Pliny the younger, Quintilian, Juvenal, and other literary men. After 35 years' residence at Rome, he returned at the close of 100 to Bilbilis, where he lived on the estate of his wife, Marcella. His works consist of fourteen books of short metrical compositions, entitled "Epigrammata," distinguished for their wit, exquisite diction, but also, in many instances, for their indelicacy.

Mary Stuart. See STUART, MARY.

Marquis of Worcester. See WORCESTER.

Massacre of Vassy. See VASSY.

Maurice of Saxony. See Appendix, page 200.

Mazarin, Jules, (1602–1661 A. D.,) Cardinal and prime-minister of France during the minority and first years of Louis XIV. During his minority the government was administered avowedly by his mother, Anne of Austria, but, in reality by Cardinal Mazarin; a man who, though in every point inferior to Richelieu, had imbibed something of his spirit, and who, so far as he was able, adopted the policy of that great statesman, to whom he owed his promotion. But the circumstance for which the administration of Mazarin is most remarkable is the breaking out of that great civil war called the Fronde, in which the people attempted to carry into politics the insubordinate spirit which had already displayed itself in literature and religion. Here we cannot fail to note the similarity between this struggle, and that which at the same time was taking place in England. In both countries there now first arose that great product of civilization, a free press, which showed its liberty by pouring forth those fearless and innumerable works which mark the activity of the age. In both countries the struggle was between retrogression and progress; between those who clung to tradition and those who longed for innovation; while in both the contest assumed the external form of a war between king and parliament, the king being the organ of the past, the parliament being the representative of the present. There was one other point of vast importance in which these two great events coincide; this is, that both arose from the desire of securing civil liberty. France was indebted to Mazarin for the advantages she derived from the peace of Westphalia and that of the Pyrenees; and it is impossible to deny the possession of great talents to him who signed these treaties, who twice governed France from the depths of his exile, and preserved the supreme authority to the close of his life, under such a prince as Louis XIV., and with such men as Cardinal de Retz and the Great Condé for his opponents. A better diplomatist than administrator, and full of contempt for the people, Mazarin enriched himself without scruple at its expense, did nothing for the internal prosperity of the state, and left France without credit and almost ruined. Miss Freer's "Regency of Anne of Austria" gives a good account of Mazarin's administration.

Memphis was the first capital of the entire kingdom of Egypt. It stood on the western bank of the Nile, lat. 30° 6′ N. Only 15 miles from the bifurcation of the Nile at Cercassorus, it commanded the south entrance to the Delta, while it was nearer to the Thebaid than any of the Deltic provincial cities of importance, Heliopolis, Bubastis, and Tais. It is also clear why its founder placed it on the western bank of the Nile. His kingdom had little to apprehend from the tribes of the Libyan Desert; whereas the eastern frontier of Egypt was always exposed to attack from Arabia, Assyria, and Persia, nor indeed was it beyond the reach of the Scythians. It was important, therefore, to make the Nile a barrier of the city; and this was effected by placing Memphis west of it. Before, however, Menes could lay the foundations of his capital, an artificial area was to be provided for them. The Nile, at that remote period, seems to have had a double bifurcation; one at the head of the Delta, the other above the site of Memphis, and parallel with the Fayoum. Of the branches of its southern fork, the western and wider of the two ran at the foot of the Libyan hills; the eastern and lower was the present main stream. Between them the plain, though resting on a limestone basis, was covered with marshes, caused by their periodical overflow. This plain Menes chose for the area of Memphis. He began by constructing an embankment that diverted the main body of the water into the eastern arm; and the marshes he drained off into two principal lakes, one to the north, the other to the west of Memphis, which thus, on every side but the south, was defended by water.

Messina, Battle of, (1676 A. D.) Messina is situated in the northeastern part of Sicily, on the strait of Messina, here about two miles wide. The inhabitants of Messina, exasperated by the oppressions of the Spanish government, had revolted in the summer of 1674, and invoked the aid of France, which was accorded by Louis XIV. The French made great efforts to retain so important a position as the straits of Messina; they defeated all the attempts of the Spaniards to regain possession of that city, and even extended their occupation in its neighborhood. At length, toward the end of December, 1675, a Dutch fleet under De Ruyter arrived to the assistance of their allies the Spaniards, and a desperate but indecisive action took place, January 8th, near Messina, between the Hispano-

Dutch fleet and the French under Duquesne. On the 22d of April, 1676, another engagement was fought near Catania with the same result, except that the death of the gallant De Ruyter might be considered equivalent to a victory. A cannon-ball carried away the left foot and shattered the right leg of the veteran admiral, as he was giving his orders on the quarter-deck. He died of his wounds a few days after at Syracuse. In a third naval action off Palermo, June 2d, the French gained a complete victory; they now remained masters of the seas, and the allied fleet was compelled to take refuge at Naples.

Metternich, Clement, (1773–1859,) Prince, one of the most eminent statesmen of modern times. His abilities soon attracted notice. After the peace of Presburg, he was appointed ambassador at Paris, in 1806; and in that delicate situation, though representing a vanquished monarch, he succeeded in conciliating all who came in contact with him, by the urbanity of his manners and the skill with which he maintained his difficult and important position. In 1809 he was appointed chancellor of state, and for nearly 40 years he exercised the highest authority in the Austrian empire. One of his first aims was to bring about a marriage between Napoleon and an Austrian archduchess, as a means of purchasing a respite for the empire. But this expedient of a humiliating sacrifice could not be permanent; and in 1813, after the great French disasters in Russia, war was again declared against France, and from that moment Metternich became the soul of all the steps that were taken to make an end to the dominion of Napoleon. He was successful, and in 1815 he presided over the congress of Vienna, which had been assembled for the purpose of dividing the immense spoils of Napoleon and reorganizing Europe. The maintaining of the articles of the congress of Vienna formed henceforth the chief business of Metternich. For this purpose he cruelly repressed every aspiration of the people after civil, political, or religious liberty. In 1848 he was compelled to flee from Vienna; but he returned in 1851, and, though he never again assumed office, his counsels are said to have swayed the emperor down to the moment of his death.

Mexican War. See Appendix, page 219.

Michael Angelo Buonarotti, (1474–1564,) the great Italian painter, sculptor, architect, and poet. His passion for drawing showed itself at a very early age, and attracted the notice of Lorenzo de Medici, who employed him in his palace. He soon after went to Rome, whither his renown as sculptor of the "Sleeping Cupid" had preceded him. He there executed his famous Pieta. For the next 30 years he lived mostly at Florence, but was frequently called to Rome. About 1506 he drew his plan for St. Peter's. He was the first who was able to imagine the colossal in a colossal manner, and in this way he devised the dome of St. Peter's. We need only compare San Gallo's model with his to feel where the difference lies. San Gallo raised tower above tower, increased, added one thing to another, and thus brought together a great but divisible mass. The small, however, does not become colossal by making it double or threefold; magnitude must belong to the form when it is devised. In this spirit Michael Angelo made his plan. He arranged every proportion according to the extent of the whole work. He was one of the greatest artists of that great period of art, the 16th century. He was also a poet, and the few poems he has left show what heights he could have reached. As in his face, so in the whole man and his deeds, are visible a vast power, with calmness and sadness. He was greatly loved and greatly feared. He died at Rome, and was buried at Florence. An excellent Life of Michael Angelo has been written by Grimm.

Miltiades, a celebrated Athenian general, hero of Marathon, was the youngest son of Cimon, and succeeded his brother, Stesagoras, about B. C. 515, as tyrant of the Chersonese. He took part in the invasion of Scythia by Darius, held his government of the Chersonese at least 22 years, and retired to Athens in 493. On occasion of the second Persian invasion of Greece, under Datis and Artaphernes, 490, Miltiades was chosen one of the ten generals, and signalized himself by the great victory over the Persians on the field of Marathon. Having persuaded the Athenians to give him the command of a fleet, he used it for private ends in an attack on Paros. The attack failed, Miltiades was severely wounded, and on his return to Athens was prosecuted and imprisoned for deceiving the people. His death took place in prison soon after.

Milton, John, (1608–1674,) the great English poet. His father gave him a careful education, which was continued at St. Paul's school and the university of Cambridge, where he distinguished himself by the excellence of

his Latin poems. In 1637 he set out for Italy. After three years' absence news reached him of the political troubles which were beginning in England, and, passionate lover of liberty as he was, he hastened home to take what part he, as thinker or actor, might. The first of the long series of writings by which he showed himself the earnest and accomplished champion of freedom were the "Two Books on Reformation in England," published in 1641. He passed to the side of the Independents, and wrote the "Areopagitica," one of the most magnificent and wonderful of his prose works. In February, 1649, he was appointed Latin secretary to the council of state; and among the duties assigned to him were those of writing a refutation of the sophistical "Eikon Basilike," then attributed to Charles I., and a reply to the violent work of Salmasius in defence of the king and the monarchy. Hence the masterly "Eikonoclastes," and the noble "Defence of the People of England." On the establishment of the Protectorate Milton became secretary to Cromwell, and remained so till the death of the latter in 1658. Several years before that time he had become totally blind, deliberately and heroically preferring, as he says, the loss of his sight to the desertion of his duty. The last short intervals of sight allotted him were devoted to the composition of the "Defence." His pathetic reference to his blindness in the "Paradise Lost" is well known; less known are the passages in which he speaks of it in the "Defence," and in one of his Latin letters, (XV.) At the Restoration he retired into obscurity, old, poor, and blind; was once arrested by order of the Commons, but after a short confinement was liberated. The court went on with its gayeties and debaucheries, and the Puritan poet wrote "Paradise Lost," which was finished in 1665. For this great poem he could hardly find a publisher, and he received for it a miserable five pounds, with a conditional promise of other like sums afterward. It appeared in 1667, and, as was likely in such a time, found few readers. Milton continued to write both poems and prose works, and on the suggestion of his friend Ellwood, the Quaker, wrote "Paradise Regained," which has been unfairly depreciated. "Samson Agonistes," a grand tragic drama after Greek models, appeared about the same time. Among his other poems are the mask "Comus," one of his most exquisite creations; "L'Allegro," "Il Penseroso," "Lycidas," "Sonnets," and Latin and Italian poems. Among the prose works not already named are "Reason of Church Government," "Apology for Smectymnus," "Treatise on Education," "Tenure of Kings and Magistrates;" and "History of England," down to the Norman Conquest only, the first history of that early period derived from the Saxon Chronicles. Milton died November 8th, 1674, and his remains were buried in St. Giles, Cripplegate, where there is a monument to his memory. Another monument was subsequently erected to him in Westminster Abbey. A more enduring one is built up in the hearts of all lovers of truth and freedom, not his own countrymen alone, but men of all lands and times. Time has reversed and almost obliterated the verdict of the enemies of Milton, and he is now for all of us a man whose language we are proud to call our own, great among the greatest, and good among the best. Wordsworth in his sublime sonnet, and Macaulay in his brilliant essay, have given words to the verdict of mankind. Professor David Masson has published a very elaborate "Life of Milton."

Mithridates, the Great, (B. C. 131–63,) King of Pontus. He diligently cultivated his mind by study and travel, and is said to have been master of more than twenty languages. In 88 he began his great struggle with the Romans, took almost all Asia Minor, and occupied Thrace and Athens. All hope of reconciliation was taken away by the massacre, which he ordered, of all Romans found in Asia. Eighty thousand are said to have been slain. Sulla was then sent against him. After four years of war, Mithridates was compelled to give up his conquests and his fleet, and pay a heavy contribution to the Romans. More fighting took place, and, in 74, Mithridates invaded Bithynia, and besieged Cyzicus. Lucullus soon compelled him to raise the siege, and drove him into Armenia, and, but for a mutiny of his troops, would probably have ended the war. Again the tide turned, and Mithridates recovered a large part of his dominions. In 66, Pompey was sent to carry on the war, and defeated him near the Euphrates. His spirit was still unbroken, and he formed the bold plan of invading Italy from the north; but at last his son Pharnaces was proclaimed king by the soldiers, and the great warrior, who had withstood the power of Rome for 25 years, took poison to end his life. It was ineffectual, from the frequent use he had made of poisons and antidotes, and he was put to death by a faithful Gaul in his service, B. C. 63. The death of Mithridates was looked on by the Romans as equivalent to a victory: the messengers who reported

to the general the catastrophe, appeared crowned with laurel, as if they had a victory to announce, in the Roman camp before Jericho. In him a great enemy was borne to the tomb, greater than had ever yet withstood the Romans in the indolent East. He was not a man of genius, but he possessed the very respectable gift of hating, and out of this hatred he sustained an unequal conflict against superior foes throughout half a century, without success doubtless, but still with honor. He became still more significant through the position in which history had placed him, than through his individuality. As the advanced post of the national reaction of the East against the Occidentals, he opened the new conflict of the East against the West; and the feeling remained with the vanquished as with the victors that his death was not so much the end as the beginning.

Missolonghi, a small town on the western coast of Greece, where, in 1824, at the early age of 36, the most celebrated English poet of the 19th century, (Lord Byron,) closed his brilliant and miserable career. Since the beginning of this century, the increase of wealth had inspired the Greeks with new tastes and more extended ideas. Young men of the upper classes were sent to Paris and other places for their education; in the schools at home the Greek classics were read, and inspired the youth with a love of liberty and a desire to emulate their ancestors. Their aspirations for independence were encouraged by the Philhellenism which, in many parts of Europe, had become a sort of fashion. A rising of the Greeks was first actually agitated by Alexander Ypsilanti. In the spring of 1821 insurrectionary symptoms began to show themselves, in which Mavrocordato, a Phanariot of ancient family, was the principal leader. The war continued through 1823, and it was not till the following year that the Western powers began to interfere. The first active aid for the Greeks came from England. The accession of Canning to the ministry, as foreign secretary, was favorable to their cause, and early in 1824 they obtained in London a loan of £800,000. Lord Byron, an ardent Philhellenist, not content with assisting them from his own resources with money and arms, proceeded to Greece to give them his personal aid. But a nearer acquaintance with the Greeks speedily dissipated all classical illusions. Byron died at Missolonghi, April 19th, 1824, from vexation, disappointment, and the effects of the climate. In December, 1824, Canning recognized the Greek government by sending them a friendly note. Finally, in 1827, Greece was declared an independent kingdom under protection of England, France, and Russia.

Moawiyah, (610–680,) sixth Caliph, first of the dynasty of the Ommyades, was the son of Abu Sophian, the bitterest foe of Mohammed. After the conquest of Mecca by the Prophet, Moawiyah, with his father, embraced Islamism. He became secretary to Mohammed, and in 641 was made governor of Syria. He conquered the islands of Cyprus and Rhodes, and on the murder of the caliph Othman, 655, refused to recognize Ali, his successor; and, after a campaign of several months on the Euphrates, defeated him. His life was attempted in 660, but he escaped with a serious wound; and Ali being assassinated about the same time, Moawiyah procured the abdication of Hassan, son of Ali, and became undisputed sovereign. Civil war ceasing, the caliph extended his dominions by conquests both in the East and West. Moawiyah succeeded in making the caliphate hereditary, and his son Yezid was proclaimed his successor in 676.

Mohacz, Battle of, (1526 A. D.,) the result of which was the union of Bohemia and Hungary with Austria. Sultan Selim was succeeded, after an enterprising reign of eight years, by his son Solyman, who received from the Turks the surname of El Kanuni, or "The Lawgiver," and from the Europeans that of "The Magnificent." He took Erzerum from the Persians, and compelled them to consent to a partition of Georgia. The conquest of Rhodes, 1522, cost him 180,000 men. He was unaccustomed to relinquish an enterprise while there remained any possibility of carrying it into effect; and at length, by means of his heavy artillery, triumphed over the undaunted courage of the grand-master l'Isle Adam, and the knights of St. John. Solyman also vanquished the army of King Lewis of Hungary and Bohemia, in the battle of Mohacz; which was followed by the death of his youthful adversary, who was misled into a marshy district where he lost his life. The battle of Mohacz was one of those events which decide the fate of nations. By the death of Lewis two crowns became vacant, which were finally united on the head of Ferdinand, archduke of Austria, and husband of Anna, only sister and heir of the unlucky Lewis. (See Genealogy, VIII.)

Mohammed, (570–632.) The Arabian Prophet and the founder of Islam was born at Mecca, 570 A. D. From his youth he had shown a fondness for seclusion and serious meditation, and having attained a ripeness of character and distinctness of aim and views, he began at 40 years of age to announce himself as a prophet, and to proclaim the doctrine of Islam, (salvation,) "There is no God but God, and Mohammed is his prophet." For many years his followers were very few. The opposition of the elders and people of Mecca grew more and more bitter, and at length they resolved to put him to death. Mohammed fled from Mecca and escaped through the palm-groves to Yatreb, (July 16th, 622.) From that day the Moslems compute the succession of time. This is the epoch of the Hegira, which Omar instituted seven years after the death of the prophet, (639.) In 630, Mohammed returned to Mecca, acknowledged as prince and prophet. He now purified the Kaaba and destroyed its 360 idols, and decreed that no infidel should enter the holy city. When Mecca had become obedient, and all Arabia paid him reverence, Mohammed commanded Islamism to be carried into every country, and all nations to be united by arms or by faith. Mohammed died in 632, in the 63d year of his age.

Mohammed Khan, Dost, (?–1863,) sovereign of Afghanistan. In 1836 war was declared against him by the British government. In 1839 they succeeded in expelling Dost Mohammed, and enthroned his rival. Confined for a time in Bokhara, whither he had fled, Dost Mohammed escaped in 1840, and took part in the insurrections excited by his son, Akhbar Khan; but soon surrendered himself to the English. The insurrections continued, and the ferocious Akhbar took the leading part in them. The war came to an end in 1841; and a convention was concluded under which, in January, 1842, Cabul was evacuated. Then followed the memorable and disastrous retreat, and the massacre of the whole English army, with the camp-followers, women, and children, numbering about 26,000 persons, one survivor only reaching Jelalabad; the renewal of the war, the rescue of the English prisoners from Akhbar, the complete triumph of the English arms, and the final evacuation of Cabul, after the destruction of its fortifications, in October, 1842. In the following year Dost Mohammed recovered the throne. He remained friendly and faithful to the British during the great mutiny of 1857, and died, three days after his capture of Herat, in May, 1863.

Molière, (1622–1673,) the great French dramatist. His real name was Jean Baptiste Poquelin, and he took the name of Molière, out of regard to his parents, when he first became an actor. After obtaining great success in the provinces, he settled at Paris in 1658, having previously produced his two great comedies, "L'Étourdi," and "Le Dépit Amoureux." In the following year he increased his reputation by the comedy "Précieuses Ridicules," which had a run of about 120 nights. He was the intimate friend of La Fontaine, Boileau, and other distinguished men; but his happiness was destroyed by an ill-assorted union (1662) with a young actress. He excited the animosity of the medical profession by several sharp attacks on them in his comedies; and that of the priests by his terrible attack on pious hypocrites in the famous "Tartuffe," which was withdrawn from the stage by the order of the king. The order was annulled in 1668. In some of his comedies he borrowed from or imitated the Latin comic writers, and in some the Italian and Spanish. But in the delineation of character and the portrayal of the vices and follies of social life, Molière is thoroughly original; and whatever materials he may have appropriated from earlier writers, he so treated them as to make the result entirely his own. He is called by Voltaire the father of French comedy, and alone among French comic writers is classical. While he treats some subjects with exquisite refinement, he indulges too frequently in exaggeration, coarseness, and mere buffoonery. His works, it is said, have been more frequently republished than those of any other French author. In 1673 he took part in the representation of his last comedy, "Le Malade Imaginaire," being at the time seriously out of health; the effort was too much for him, and he died the same night, 17th February. His profession excluded him from the French Academy, but a century after his death his bust was set up in the hall, with this inscription: "Rien ne manque à sa gloire; il manquait à la nôtre."

Montaigne, Michel, (1533–1592,) the celebrated French essayist. In 1554, he was appointed a judge in the parliament of Bordeaux, and about that time he gained the esteem of the Chancellor L'Hôpital and the warm friendship of Étienne Boétie, a fellow-judge. During the civil wars which desolated his country, he lived in retirement on his own estate; profoundly

afflicted by the general suffering, and especially by the massacre of St. Bartholomew. In 1580–81 he travelled in Germany, Switzerland, and Italy. During the last few years of his life he suffered from most painful diseases, and, like his father, grandfather, and great-grandfather, he would have nothing to do with doctors or drugs. He died in the attitude of prayer, September 13th, 1592. Montaigne's "Essays" rank among the few great books of the world. Pervaded by a philosophical skepticism, which they, more than any book, contributed to popularize in France — distinguished especially for their masculine good sense, abundance of learning, knowledge of man and the world, clearness and simplicity of style, and complete sincerity, they were not long in winning the place in literature which they still hold. They have been translated into almost all languages, and have passed through more than 80 editions. The subjects of the Essays are immensely various, and everything is discussed in the freest manner. Montaigne thinks aloud in them. The book was at one time called the breviary of free-thinkers; and it is still, from some of its characteristics, chiefly read by men of the world. It is one of the only two books we *know* to have been in Shakspeare's library — the copy of Florio's translation, with Shakspeare's autograph, being still extant. An interesting biography of Montaigne was recently published by Bayle St. John.

Montecuculi, Raymond de, (1608–1681.) The Italian Montecuculi was the greatest military chieftain in the service of the house of Austria during the middle of the 17th century. In 1664, he commanded the forces of Christendom against the Turks, who, under the grand-vizier Achmet Kouprili, were on the point of invading Germany. Montecuculi at length arrested their progress by the memorable battle near St. Gothard, (August 1st, 1664,) a Cistercian convent on the borders of Hungary and Styria. Montecuculi having given the word, "Death or victory," the Christians, contrary to their usual practice, charged without waiting to be attacked; the Turks were routed and thrown into a disorderly flight, in which more than 10,000 of them were slain or drowned in the Raab. By this victory the danger of a Saracen invasion in Central Europe had been warded off by Montecuculi. In the spring of 1675 he defended Germany against the French under Turenne, on the Rhine, where both generals displayed all the resources of their skill. But the career of Turenne was brought to a close before he could fight any decisive action, which enabled Montecuculi to cross the Rhine and enter Alsace. Condé was now ordered to assume the command in Alsace, who succeeded in holding Montecuculi in check till November, when the Imperialists retreated into winter quarters beyond the Rhine. This was the last campaign both of Montecuculi and Condé. Montecuculi is the author of excellent Mémoires on the art of war.

Monstrelet, Enguerrand de, (1390–1453 A. D.,) a French historian. His Chronicle commences at the year 1400, where that of Froissart ends, and terminates at 1453. But different editors have successively added several continuations, which bring it down to the year 1516. His work is called Chronicles; but we must not, however, consider this title in the sense commonly attached to it, which merely conveys the idea of simple annals. The Chronicles of Monstrelet are real history, wherein, notwithstanding its imperfections and omissions, are found all the characteristics of historical writing. He traces events to their source, develops the causes, and traces them with the minutest details; and what render these Chronicles infinitely precious is his never-failing attention to report all documents as justificatory proofs of the truth of the facts he relates. An English translation was published in 1810.

Moore, Thomas, (1779–1852,) the national poet of Ireland. Like Pope, it may be said that he lisped in numbers; for in his 13th year he was a contributor to the "Anthologia," a Dublin magazine. In 1799 he proceeded to London, with the view of publishing by subscription a translation of Anacreon, which appeared in 1800. In 1803, the earl of Moira obtained for him a government appointment in Bermuda, whither he proceeded, but speedily left his duties to be performed by a deputy, and visited the United States. After his return he published, in 1806, two volumes of Odes and Epistles, which were the occasion of a bitter criticism in the "Edinburgh Review." In consequence of that article, Jeffrey and Moore met as duellists at Chalk Farm; but no harm was done, and they subsequently became fast friends. A report getting abroad that Moore and Jeffrey fought with unloaded pistols, Byron commemorated the event in his "English Bards and Scotch Reviewers;" and Moore followed up his Chalk Farm adventure by sending a challenge to Byron. The challenge led, however, as with Jeffrey, to a sincere friendship between the two rival

poets. In 1813 commenced his patriotic task of wedding new words to the most exquisite of the Irish airs, which resulted in the far-famed "Irish Melodies;" which were soon followed by his Oriental romance, "Lalla Rookh." The work was hailed with a burst of admiration. Eastern travellers and Oriental scholars have borne testimony to the singular accuracy of Moore's descriptions; and, translated into Persian, this poem has even become a favorite with the Orientals themselves. Moore also turned his attention to prose, and wrote remarkable biographies of Sheridan and Lord Byron. In 1848 he fell into a state of second childhood and the name of Thomas Moore was added to the sad list which includes the names of Swift, Scott, and Southey.

More, Sir Thomas, (1480–1535,) the earliest writer of classical English prose. At the age of 21 he entered parliament, where he opposed a subsidy demanded by Henry VII., with such energy that it was refused by the house. In 1518 he published his "Utopia," a political romance; and about this time the friendship began between him and Erasmus, which lasted through life. By the interest of Wolsey he obtained a place in the privy council. Various political missions were intrusted to him by Henry VIII. In 1520 he succeeded Wolsey as lord chancellor; and, by his indefatigable application in that office, there was in a short time not a cause left undetermined. He resigned the seals because he could not conscientiously sanction the divorce of Queen Catharine; and he was eventually committed to the Tower for refusing the oath of supremacy. After an imprisonment of 12 months he was brought to trial in the court of King's Bench, where, notwithstanding his eloquent defence, he was found guilty of treason, and sentenced to be beheaded. His behavior, in the interval, corresponded with the uniform tenor of his life; and, on July 6th, 1535, he ascended the scaffold with his characteristic pleasantry, saying to the lieutenant of the Tower, "I pray you see me safe up; and as for my coming down, let me shift for myself." In the same spirit, when he laid his head on the block, he told the executioner to wait till he had removed his beard, "For that," said he, "hath committed no treason." Thus fell this illustrious Englishman, whose integrity and disinterestedness were on a par with his learning, and whose manly piety, genial wisdom, and tender kindness in his private relations, made him beloved of all who knew him. More's fame as the earliest writer of classical English prose rests on his "Life and Reign of King Edward V." It is characterized throughout by an easy narrative flow which rivals the sweetness of Herodotus. It is certainly the first English historic composition that can be said to aspire to be more than a mere chronicle.

Moscow, Burning of, (1812.) The conviction that the Continental system (the closing of the Continental ports against British goods) would be ruinous to the commerce of Russia, and that Napoleon would never rest until he had destroyed her influence as a first-rate European power, at length roused the Russians to action. Napoleon, wishing to forestall Russia, collected, in 1812, an army of 400,000 men, from almost every country of southwestern Europe. With his accustomed rapidity of movement, he crossed the Niemen into Lithuania, and advanced by forced marches to Smolensk, where he defeated the Russians, and after two more victories he entered Moscow. At the sight of its palaces and gilded domes, the French soldiery were filled with hope and joy, imagining that they had at last reached the end of all their labors and privations. But these anticipations were soon dissipated. On entering the city, it was discovered that all that remained of its vast population were some twelve or fifteen thousand persons, either foreigners or the dregs of the people. The rest of the inhabitants had taken flight; the houses were all shut up, silence reigned in the deserted streets, striking a deeper terror into the heart than the tumult of battle. Napoleon entered the city on the 15th, and took up his residence in the Kremlin. He could not conceal the sinister presages which crowded on his mind. Never before had he fought with a people who thus defended themselves. All around was desolation, and famine stared him in the face. While he was giving vent to his lamentations, a new horror suddenly presented itself. The night was well advanced, when from the windows of the Kremlin the whole horizon seemed to glow with innumerable fires. Some had been observed the day before, which had been attributed to accident; but now there could be no doubt that the destruction of Moscow had been systematically organized. It had, indeed, been planned and executed by Count Rostoptchin, the governor of the city. Combustible materials had been placed in many houses, which were fired by a troop of paid incendiaries, under the direction of the police. The flames baffled all the exertions of the French to extinguish them. On the third day a strong northwest

wind spread the fire over the whole city. During five days nothing was to be seen but an ocean of flame, which at length began to encompass the Kremlin and compelled Napoleon to retreat, the order for which was given October 19th, 1812. (See Appendix, page 215.)

Moses, (B. C. 1571–1451.) During the time of the oppression of the Israelites by their taskmasters the Egyptians, Moses was born among them. He was educated by a royal princess, who commanded the child to be educated in all the learning of Egypt. Happening to see one of his nation ill treated, he felt the injustice and slew the oppressor. After this act he fled, and followed for many years the occupation of herdsman on Mount Sinai. This wanderer, who had taken refuge in the wilderness, who fed the flocks of a foreigner, his laws, his history, and his name are now, after more than 4,000 years, the object of veneration among all the nations, from the Tagus to Hindostan, and from the frozen seas of Scandinavia to the country of frankincense. By the help of God alone, he forced the Egyptian king to release Israel from his dominion, and to suffer them to depart out of Egypt. Moses, in order to educate his people for freedom, made a long halt in a country where Israel might be entirely free from the contagious influence of foreign manners. A sandy desert stretches from the borders of Egypt toward the mouth of the Euphrates. Where the two arms of the Arabian Gulf extend into the land, a lofty mountain rises — Mount Sinai. Its highest summit is a granite rock, 22 feet wide and 12 feet long. From this height, amidst thunders, which resounded with unwonted terrors through the hollow clefts, Israel received her law.

N.

Napoleon Bonaparte, (1769–1821,) Emperor of the French, King of Italy, etc., was born in Ajaccio, in the island of Corsica, August 15th, 1769. He was educated at the military school of Brienne, and entered the army as a second lieutenant of artillery, in 1785. In 1793, during the Reign of Terror, he was actively employed at the siege of Toulon, on which occasion the convention gave him the command of the artillery; and by his courage and exertions the city was recovered from the English and royalists. He was now appointed to the command of the army of Italy, and, on the 10th of May following, he gained the battle of Lodi. The subjugation of the various Italian States, and his repeated success over the Austrians, ended in a peace when he was within 30 miles of Vienna. Thus disengaged, a new theatre for the display of his genius presented itself. With a large fleet, and 40,000 troops on board the transports, he set sail for the intended conquest of Egypt, in May, 1798. On his way thither he took Malta; and on the 22d of September, we find him celebrating the battle of the Pyramids at Cairo. He returned to France, in October, 1799; hastened to Paris, overthrew the directorial government; and was raised to the supreme power by the title of First Consul. He now led a powerful army over the Alps; fought the celebrated battle of Marengo, in June, 1800; and once more became master of the whole of Italy. A peace with Austria followed these successes; and, soon after, a brief and hollow peace with England. On the 20th of May, 1804, he was raised to the imperial dignity; and in December was crowned, with his empress Josephine, by Pope Pius VII. He now seriously meditated the invasion of England, assembled a numerous flotilla, and collected 200,000 troops in the neighborhood of Boulogne; but Austria and Russia appearing in arms against him, and the battle of Trafalgar having nearly annihilated the French navy, he abandoned the design, and marched his troops to the banks of the Danube. On the 11th of November, 1805, the French army entered Vienna; the memorable battle of Austerlitz took place on the 2d of December, and the humiliating treaty of Presburg followed. The year 1806 may be regarded as the era of king-making. New dynasties were created by him, and princes promoted or transferred according to his will: the crown of Naples he bestowed on his brother Joseph, that of Holland on Louis, and Westphalia on Jerome; while the confederation of the Rhine was called into existence to give stability to his extended dominion. Prussia again declared war; but the disastrous battle of Jena annihilated her hopes, and both she and Russia were glad to make peace with the French emperor in 1807. Napo-

leon now turned his eye on Spain, procuring the abdication of Charles IV., and the resignation of Ferdinand, while he sent 80,000 men into that country, seized all the strong places, and obtained possession of the capital; but this proved one of the main causes which led to his downfall. In 1809, while his armies were occupied in the Peninsula, Austria again ventured to try her strength with France. Napoleon thereupon left Paris, and at the head of his troops once more entered the Austrian capital, gained the decisive victory of Wagram, and soon concluded a peace; one of the secret conditions of which was that he should have his marriage with Josephine dissolved, and unite himself to the daughter of the emperor, Francis II. His former marriage was accordingly annulled; and he espoused the archduchess Maria Louisa in April, 1810. Dissatisfied with the conduct of Russia, Napoleon now put himself at the head of an invading army, prodigious in number, and admirably appointed, and marched with his numerous allies toward the enemy's frontiers, gained several battles, and at length reached Moscow, (see this,) where he hoped to establish his winter quarters, but which he found in flames. A retreat was unavoidable; and now was presented to the eye a succession of the most appalling scenes recorded in modern history — a brave and devoted army encountering all the horrors of famine in a climate so insupportably cold that their freezing bodies strewed the roads, while an exasperated phalanx of Cossacks hung upon the rear of the main army, hewing down without remorse the enfeebled and wretched fugitives. Napoleon returned to Paris, called out a new army of 350,000 men, and marched at their head to meet the combined Russian and Prussian forces. Victory still for a time hovered over his banners; but Austria having joined the coalition, the great battle of Leipsic, in which he lost half of his army, was decisive as to the war in Germany. Napoleon, however, again returned to Paris, and demanded another levy of 300,000 men. The levy was granted, and the new campaign (1814) was attended with various success; till the overwhelming number of his enemies, who crossed the French frontiers at different points, at length compelled him to abdicate, and accept the sovereignty of the isle of Elba, with the title of ex-emperor, and a pension of 2,000,000 livres. From this place he found means to escape, secretly embarking on the night of the 25th of February, 1815, accompanied by about 1,200 men: he landed at Fréjus on the 1st of March, speedily reached Paris, and expelled Louis XVIII. from the kingdom. But the confederated armies were now in motion; and though he marched against them with a large army, the ever-memorable battle of Waterloo put an end to his career. He withdrew from the army, and proceeded to the coast, with the intention of embarking for America; but, fearful of being captured by the British cruisers, he surrendered on the 15th of July to Captain Maitland, and went on board the Bellerophon. By the joint determination of the allies he was sent to the isle of St. Helena, where he died, on the 5th of May, 1821, of cancer in the stomach. In 1840, in accordance with the request of the French government, the remains of the exile were brought over to France, and with great ceremony laid in the Hôtel des Invalides.

National Covenant, (1638.) Scotland had risen in mass to declare against the Episcopal Service-Book, and the tyranny which was forcing it on the nation. To give union and strength to their resistance, a decisive and memorable thing was done. This measure was the signing of the Covenant. If Englishmen look back with reverence to their Magna Charta, with reverence as great does every Scotchman look back to the National Covenant. It saved Scotland from absolute despotism. It was the impressive commencement of a struggle which, enduring through blood and tears for half a century, had its triumphant issue in securing the liberties of Britain. This memorable bond was first signed at Edinburgh, 1st of March, 1638. By it the covenanters swore to resist innovations in religion, and to stand by each other with their lives and fortunes in the defence of their king, their religion, and their laws. The consequence of this association, which was eagerly subscribed by all orders and ranks, was exceedingly alarming: the petitioners no longer confined their demands to religious matters, but required an independent assembly and a parliament.

Nebuchadnezzar. See Appendix, page 171.

Nelson, Horatio, (1758–1805,) England's greatest naval hero. For his share in the glorious victory of St. Vincent, Nelson was appointed to command the inner squadron at the blockade of Cadiz. In 1798 he was sent up the Mediterranean, to watch the progress of the armament at Toulon, destined for the conveyance of Napoleon and his army to Egypt. Notwithstanding the strictest vigilance, this fleet found means to escape, but

was followed by Nelson, and traced to the bay of Aboukir. Here he commenced an immediate attack, and by a manœuvre of equal boldness and ability, sailed between the enemy and the land, though exposed to a double fire. The result was a victory so glorious and decisive that nearly all the French vessels were taken or destroyed. Fresh laurels were gained by him in 1801, when he forced an entrance into the Baltic. In March, 1803, he sailed for the Mediterranean. Notwithstanding all his vigilance, the French fleet escaped from Toulon, and was joined by that of Cadiz; of which being apprised, he pursued them to the West Indies with a far inferior force. The combined squadrons returned without effecting anything, and re-entered Cadiz. The French and the Spaniards ventured out with a number of troops on board, October 19th, 1805, and on the 21st, about noon, the action began off Cape Trafalgar. In the middle of the engagement a musket-ball struck Nelson. He lived just long enough to be acquainted with the number of ships that had been captured, and his last words were, "I have done my duty: I praise God for it." The signal which he hoisted on commencing this action was—"England expects that every man will do his duty!" There is a popular Life of Nelson by Southey.

Nero, Lucius Domitius, (37–68,) Roman Emperor, was the son of Cneius Domitius Ahenobarbus, and of Agrippina, daughter of Germanicus. At the commencement of his reign his conduct excited great hopes in the Romans: he appeared just, liberal, affable, and polished; but this was a mask which soon fell off. He caused his mother to be assassinated, and vindicated the unnatural act to the senate on the ground that Agrippina had plotted against him. She had stood in the way of his marrying the profligate Poppæa Sabina, then the wife of his general Otho. But after the murder of Agrippina, he divorced his wife, had her put to death, and married Poppæa. In 64, Rome was burnt, and popular suspicion pointed to Nero as the author of the conflagration. He charged the Christians with it, and commenced a dreadful persecution of them. His cruelties, extravagance, and debauchery at length roused the public resentment. Piso formed a conspiracy against the tyrant in 65, but it was discovered and defeated. A new conspiracy, headed by Galba, proved successful; and Nero, abandoned by his flatterers, put an end to his existence, A. D. 68.

Nestorius, the celebrated Patriarch of Constantinople, from whom originated the sect of Nestorians, was born in Syria. He was brought up in a convent, became a presbyter of the church at Antioch, and was distinguished for his austere life and fervid oratory. Theodosius nominated him, in 428, to the see of Constantinople, in which station he displayed great zeal against the Arians. He at length fell under censure himself, and was finally condemned in the council of Ephesus, in 431, deprived of his see, and banished. He died before 451, but his followers continue to be numerous in the East, and are organized under a patriarch.

New Amsterdam, (founded 1614 A. D.; since 1664, **New York**.) In 1610, and the following years, a number of trading vessels were sent out by Dutch merchants to the mouth of the Hudson. Valuable furs were obtained from the Indians, and the traffic proved highly profitable. Some huts were soon erected on the lower part of Manhattan Island, and in 1614 a fort was built for their defence. The settlement was called New Amsterdam, and the name of New Netherlands was given to the surrounding region. Peter Minuit sailed, in January, 1626, for New Netherlands, as its director-general. He arrived there on the 4th of May. Hitherto the Dutch had no title to ownership of the land: Minuit succeeded at once in purchasing the island of Manhattan from its native proprietors. The price paid was sixty guilders (about 24 dollars) for more than twenty thousand acres. The southern point was selected for "a battery," and lines were drawn for a fort, which took the name of New Amsterdam.

Newton, Sir Isaac, (1642–1727,) the most distinguished natural philosopher, mathematician, and astronomer of modern times. At the age of 22, Newton took his degree of bachelor of arts, and about the same time he applied himself to the grinding of object-glasses for telescopes; and having procured a glass prism in order to investigate the phenomena of colors discovered by Grimaldi, the result of his observations was his new theory of light and colors. It was not long after that he made his grand discovery of the law of gravitation; but it was not till 1687 that the Newtonian system was first published in his great work, the "Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica." In 1696 he was made warden of the Mint, and afterward master, which place he held with the greatest honor till his death. He enjoyed his faculties to the close of his long life. His temper, also, was remarkably

even, and he had the humility which always accompanies true greatness. Newton spent much of his time in studying and elucidating the Scriptures. When his friends expressed their admiration of his discoveries, he said, "To myself I seem to have been as a child playing on the sea-shore, while the immense ocean of truth lay unexplored before me." The following is Pope's well-known epitaph on this prince of philosophers:

> "Nature and all her works lay hid in night:
> God said, Let Newton be — and all was light."

The fullest account of Newton is to be found in Sir D. Brewster's "Memoirs of the Life, Writings, and Discoveries of Sir Isaac Newton," published in 1856.

Nile. See Appendix.

Nimwegen, Peace of, (1678 A. D.,) which marks the culminating point of the glory of Louis XIV. In order to avenge himself on the Dutch for the share which they had taken in the formation of the triple alliance, and at the same time to extort from them a reversal of the decree by which the importation of French merchandise into Holland was prohibited, Louis gained over their allies, the English and Swedes, invaded Holland, and was only restrained from conquering the whole country by the opening of the sluices and the consequent submersion of the land. Assistance was promised to the Dutch republic by the great elector, William of Brandenburg, who concluded an alliance with the emperor, and subsequently with Spain; so that France was compelled to maintain a war on three of her frontiers at once. (See Appendix, page 204.) Louis XIV. was now forced to act on the defensive; and a long series of disasters compelled him to conclude a treaty. A congress assembled at Nimwegen, (a town of the Netherlands, on the left bank of the Waal,) at which peace was signed on the 10th of August, 1678. Holland recovered all that had been taken from her during the war; Spain abandoned the Franche-Comté, and many places in the Low Countries; the right of France to the possession of Alsace was confirmed. The young duke of Lorraine refused to be subject to Louis XIV., and rejected the conditions on which he might have been re-established in his states, which remained in the occupation of the French. To the advantages secured by the peace of Nimwegen, Louis added others, not less important, but which he had obtained by fraud and violence. It was said in the treaty that the countries ceded should be accompanied by all their dependencies. The negotiators had supposed that these cessions would be settled by mutual agreement; but Louis XIV. assumed that he had a right to settle them in his own way, and accordingly he established a sovereign chamber at Besançon, and two equally sovereign councils, the one at Breisach, the other at Metz, which were empowered to decide without appeal respecting all cessions to his crown. Many princes by this arbitrary measure were deprived of a portion of their domains.

Normans in France, (920 A. D.) The men of the north, called Danes in England, and Normans in Gaul, had remained pagans, and were still proud, even in the ninth century, of their title as sons of Odin. Their natural ferocity was kept up and incessantly excited by a continual life of brigandage. A law of the country, which was maintained wherever this people founded establishments, tended to perpetuate on the coasts of Denmark and Norway the existence of this race of pirates. It was one of the principal causes of the frightful evils which they inflicted from the 9th to the 11th century on European nations; and to it must be referred the first origin of the empires which these peoples founded. This law, which is still in force in England, gave to the eldest son alone in Denmark and Norway the patrimony of the family. It affected the families of the kings as well as those of the subjects. The eldest son of the chief or king alone inherited his father's sceptre and estates. His brothers, though recognized as kings by the customs of the northern nations, had the ocean as their kingdom, on which they sought their fortune; hence the name of sea-kings which was given to them, and which collected under their banner a multitude of men who, like themselves, had no other patrimony beyond their sword. One of these chiefs, who was famous for his audacity and ferocity, the pirate Hastings, spread desolation and terror on the whole country between the Seine and the Loire. Charles the Bald had intrusted the defence of this territory to a celebrated warrior, Robert the Strong, who was already count of Paris and the glorious founder of the dynasty of Capet. Robert, whom the chronicles of the time called the Maccabæus of France, was killed, and nothing arrested the devastating torrent from that moment. In 912, the territory afterward called Normandy was ceded by Charles the Simple to

a formidable Norman chief, who had been disinherited by his father, and banished from Norway, his native land. This chief, who had previously desolated Gaul by perpetual invasions, is celebrated in history by the name of Rollo, and was the first duke of Normandy. He paid homage to the king, was converted to Christianity, and divided his vast territory into fiefs. His warriors, whom he kept down by severe laws, became the fathers of a great people, which was the firmest bulwark of France against the invasion of the Northern races.

Nuñez de Balboa, See BALBOA.

O.

O'Connell, Daniel, (1775–1846,) the great Irish "Agitator." He intended to enter the Church, but after the repeal of the act which prohibited Roman Catholics from practising at the bar, he became a lawyer, and soon acquired a large practice. In 1809 he became connected with the associations which had the emancipation of the Catholics for their object, and the eloquence and zeal which he displayed in this cause made him the idol of his Catholic, and the dread of his Protestant countrymen. Several years elapsed before his efforts for the enfranchisement of the Irish Catholics were followed by any adequate result. But in 1823 he founded a new Catholic Association, which soon extended over the whole of Ireland, and from that period down to his decease his personal history is identified with that of Ireland. In 1828, O'Connell resolved, notwithstanding that existing disabilities precluded all hopes of legal success, to become a candidate for a seat in parliament; he was nominated for the county of Clare, and he was returned by a large majority. He presented himself at the table of the House of Commons, and expressed his willingness to take the oath of allegiance; but refusing the other oaths, he was ordered to withdraw. Agitation throughout every part of Ireland then assumed so formidable a character that the ministers apprehended a civil war, to avert which the Roman Catholic Relief Bill was introduced and carried, which enabled O'Connell to take his seat in the house. In the following year a repeal of the union was demanded by every parish and hamlet in Ireland; and in 1843 "monster meetings" were held on the royal Hill of Tara, on the Curragh of Kildare, the Rath of Mullaghmast, and other renowned localities; the government interfered, and prosecutions were commenced. O'Connell was sentenced to pay a fine of £2,000 and to be imprisoned for a year. This judgment was reversed by the House of Lords; but the prosecution had answered its purpose: O'Connell's credit as a politician was impaired. He retired from the arena of strife, and commenced a pilgrimage, in 1847, to Rome; but he had proceeded no farther than Genoa when he expired, May 15th, in his 72d year. By his great abilities, marvellous activity and energy, and extraordinary eloquence, and by long service on behalf of his Roman Catholic countrymen, he obtained an almost superhuman power over the Irish people. But he was careless as to the means he used for accomplishing his ends. The last years of his life were frittered away in the pursuit of an impracticable object; and his last moments were embittered by the spectacle of his country torn by dissensions which he had mainly fostered, and groaning under pestilence and famine.

Odenathus. In the midst of a valley open to the southward, at the distance of a day's journey from the Euphrates, and among groves of palm-trees, watered by limpid streams, Solomon, the king of Judah, had built Tadmor in the wilderness: it was called by the Greeks Palmyra, and became by its situation almost independent, though it acknowledged the sovereignty of Rome. Odenathus and his consort Zenobia made Palmyra the capital of a kingdom: they reigned over Syria and Mesopotamia, and rendered themselves formidable to the Persian monarch, while Firmus, their ally, had acquired possession of Egypt. The sciences and the fine arts made Palmyra their favorite abode. The emperor Aurelian conquered the princess Zenobia, but displayed his clemency toward the people of Palmyra. The latter, unaccustomed to submission, made a premature attempt against the weak garrison which he had perhaps left among them as a test of their

fidelity; and the consequences of this revolt involved the ruin of their magnificent town. The huge walls yet stand in ruins, and the situation of the place still renders it important.

Odoacer, first barbarian King of Italy, was the son of one of Attila's officers. He entered into the imperial guards, in which he rose to an honorable rank. In 476 he was chosen chief of a confederate army, and was saluted by them king of Italy. He defeated the patrician Orestes at Pavia, banished his son Romulus Augustulus, the last Roman emperor, and made Ravenna the seat of his kingdom. He obtained the title of patrician from Zeno, emperor of the East, and did not assume the imperial ensigns. By his wise and honorable administration he showed himself worthy of the dignity to which he was raised; but misery, desolation, and gradual depopulation were the prominent features of the condition of the kingdom. In 489, Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, invaded Italy, and Odoacer was three times defeated by him: first near Aquileia, then near Verona, and lastly near Ravenna. He was then besieged three years in Ravenna, and at length, compelled by famine and the clamors of the people, he made a treaty with Theodoric, by which they were to rule jointly. But after a few days, Odoacer was assassinated by his conqueror, March, 493.

Olynthian War. See Appendix, page 225.

Origen, (185–253,) a Father of the Church, and one of the most learned writers of his times. At the age of 17 he lost his father, who was beheaded for his profession of Christianity. Origen had then recourse to the teaching of grammar for the support of the bereaved family; but this occupation he relinquished on being appointed catechist, or head of the Christian school of Alexandria. From Alexandria he went to Rome, where he began his famous "Hexapla," an edition of the Hebrew Bible with five Greek versions of it. At the command of his bishop, Demetrius, he returned to Alexandria, and on his way through Palestine, in 228, was ordained presbyter at Cæsarea. Soon after this he began his "Commentaries," in which he indulged too much the fancy for allegory; and in his other works he advanced notions more agreeable to the Platonic philosophy than to the Scriptures. To his contemporaries the most offensive of his doctrines were those of the pre-existence of souls, and the finite duration of future punishment.

Orleans Family, The, in France. Louis Philippe, son of Egalité, duke of Orleans, (see Genealogy VII.,) was elected king of the French by the Chamber of Deputies, on the 7th of August, 1830, his predecessor, Charles X., having alienated his people by limiting the freedom of the press, and consequently being dethroned after a three days' revolution, (July 27–29th, 1830.) The new king applied himself to acquire popularity among the Parisians, by displaying himself as a "citizen king." Anybody and everybody was admitted to his presence. He appeared in the streets on foot, in a great-coat and round hat, with the proverbial umbrella under his arm, and shook hands familiarly with the people. The reign of Louis Philippe was without any fixed principles, and a continued system of trimming, both in his foreign and domestic policy. Louis Philippe's domestic policy was necessarily in some degree reactionary, because the principles on which he had accepted the throne were untenable. In his foreign policy, he endeavored to acquire a little popularity without risking a breach with the Great Powers. Seeking to centralize the royal power, and to strengthen himself by foreign alliances, he was compelled to flee to England in 1848.

Ottoman Empire in Europe. Humble indeed is the description the Ottomans give of their own origin. They relate that Othman, the founder of their empire and name, himself followed the plough with his servants, and that when he wished to break off from work at noon, he used to stick up a banner to call them home. These servants were his first followers in war, and they were marshalled beneath the same signal. The new power that arose in Asia Minor having now established itself on its northern coasts, it chanced one day that Soliman, the grandson of Othman, rode along the shores of the Hellespont, passing on through the ruins of ancient cities, and fell into a silent revery. "What is my khan thinking of?" said one of his escort. "I am thinking," was the reply, "about our crossing over to Europe." These followers of Soliman were the first who did cross over to Europe: they were successful; and Soliman's brother, Amurath I., was he who conquered Adrianople. Thenceforth the Ottoman power spread gradually farther. Bajazet I., the great-grandson of Othman, was master here of Weddin and Wallachia, yonder of Caramania and Cæsarea. Europe and Asia, both threatened by Bajazet, rose up to resist him. Europe, however, fell prostrate at Nicopolis; and though Asia, for which Timur stood

forth as champion, was victorious, still it did not destroy the dominions of Bajazet. It was but fifty years after this defeat that Mohammed II. took Constantinople, (1453 A. D.,) the imperial city whose sway had once extended far over both quarters. The victor was not content with seeing the cities on the coasts of the Black Sea and the Adriatic own his supremacy: to bring the sea itself under subjection, he built a fleet; he began to conquer the islands of the Ægean one after the other; and his troops showed themselves in Apulia. There seemed to be no bounds to the career of victory. Though Bajazet II. did not equal his predecessors in valor, still his cavalry swept Friuli, his infantry captured fortresses in the Morea, and his fleets rode victorious in the Ionian Sea. But he was far outstripped by his son Selim and his grandson Soliman. Selim overcame the Mamelukes of Cairo, who had often been victorious over Bajazet; and he caused the prayer to be pronounced in his noble name in the mosques of Syria and Egypt. Soliman effected far more than he. One battle made him master of Hungary, (see MOHACZ,) and thenceforth he trod in that kingdom as in his own house. In the far East he portioned out the territory of Bagdad into sandshakates according to the banners of his troops. That Chaireddin Barbarossa, who boasted that his turban stuck on a pole scared the Christians and sent them flying for miles into the country, served him, and made his name dreaded over the whole Mediterranean. With amazement and awe men reckoned up thirty kingdoms and nearly 8,000 miles of coast that owned his sway. He styled himself emperor of emperors, prince of princes, distributer of the crowns of the world, God's shadow over both quarters of the globe, ruler of the Black and of the White Sea, of Asia and of Europe.

Otto I., or the **Great**, (923–973 A. D.,) Emperor of the West, and conqueror of the Magyars on the Lechfeld. When the male line of the Eastern branch of the Carolingians had ended in Lewis, (see Genealogy, X.,) the chieftains chose Conrad the Franconian, and after him Henry the Saxon, (the Fowler,) both representing the female line of Charlemagne. Henry laid the foundations of a firm monarchy, driving back the Magyars and Wends, and founding the towns to be strongholds against their irruptions. He bequeathed an undisputed sceptre to his house, which was so firmly established that his son Otto was in position to revive and carry through the claims founded by his Carolingian predecessors. He first completely realized the idea of a Germanic empire, which they had only conceived and prepared. He governed Lotharingia and administered Burgundy: a short campaign sufficed to re-establish the rights of his Carolingian predecessors to the supreme power in Lombardy. Like Charlemagne, he was called to aid by a Pope oppressed by the factions of Rome; like him, he received in return for his succor the crown of the Western empire, (February 2d, 962.) But it was not his only office. He was already a German king; and the new dignity by no means superseded the old. This union in one person of two characters is the key to the whole subsequent history of Germany and the empire. It was of great importance to the inward progress of Germany that it thus remained in unbroken connection with Italy, the depository of all that remained of ancient civilization, the source whence all the forms of Christianity had been derived. Germany felt this importance, and had for many years longed for this union. In a time of disintegration, confusion, strife, all the longings of every wiser and better soul for unity, for peace and law, for some bond to bring Christian men and Christian states together against the common enemy of the faith, were but so many cries for the restoration of the Roman empire. These were the feelings that 30 years before (933 A. D.) had broken forth on the field of Merseburg, in the shout of "Henry the Emperor," these the hopes of the Teutonic host, when, after the great deliverance of the Lechfeld, they had greeted Otto, conqueror of the Magyars, as "Imperator, Augustus, Pater Patriæ," (955 A. D.)

Ovid, Publius Ovidius Naso, (B. C. 43 – A. D. 18,) a celebrated Roman poet of the Augustan age. He studied the law; but his predilection for literature led him to neglect severer studies, and on succeeding to the paternal estate, he quitted the bar for poetry and pleasure. Horace and Propertius were his friends, and Augustus was a liberal patron to him; but he at length fell under the displeasure of the emperor, who, for some cause never explained, banished him from Rome, and sent him to live among the Getæ, or Goths, on the Euxine. It is probable that the political intrigues of Tiberius contributed to the exile of the poet; while the licentiousness of his writings, and the irregularities of his life, afforded plausible pretexts for the infliction of this punishment. His chief works are the "Fasti," and "Metamorphoses." There are many English translations

of Ovid; the most recent of which are the metrical versions of the "Metamorphoses" and the "Fasti," by J. B. Rose.

Oxenstiern, Axel, (1582–1654,) Count, an eminent Swedish statesman, distinguished for profound sagacity, patriotism, and political honesty. He was the favorite of Gustavus Adolphus, after whose death he conducted the affairs of the kingdom, during the minority of the queen, Christina, with equal ability and integrity. He controlled completely the education of the young queen, and, though he procured for her the best instruction in art, science, and literature, the course pursued was calculated to extinguish all feminine qualities.

P.

Pacification of Ghent. See GHENT.

Parma, Alessandro Farnese, Duke of Parma, (1555–1592,) one of the greatest generals of his age. He served in the Spanish armies, and distinguished himself at the battle of Lepanto. In 1577 he conducted the Spanish forces to Flanders, and contributed to re-establish the power of Spain. He soon after became governor of the Netherlands, recovered many of the principal towns, and won over the Catholic population. In 1590 he invaded France, and, without risking a battle, compelled Henry IV. to raise the siege of Paris. After his return from France, the state of his health became so alarming, that he asked for his dismissal, but he died without obtaining it, December, 1592. It was to his military genius and his conciliating policy that Spain owed the preservation of the Southern Netherlands.

Passau, Peace of, (1552 A. D.,) between emperor Charles V., and Maurice, elector of Saxony, allowing the free exercise of the Protestant religion. The chief articles were, in substance, that the confederates should dismiss their troops by the 12th of August, or enroll them in Ferdinand's service for the war against the Turks; that the landgrave of Hesse should be set at liberty on his promising submission for the future; that a diet should be held within six months for settling the religious disputes, and also for considering the alleged encroachments on the liberties and constitution of the empire; that in the mean time the Protestants should enjoy the free exercise of their religion, engaging in turn to leave the Catholics unmolested; that Protestants as well as Catholics should be admitted into the imperial chamber; that an entire amnesty should be granted for all past transactions; and that Albert of Brandenburg should be admitted into the treaty,provided he immediately laid down his arms. The king of France was invited to state his grievances against the emperor, so that he might be included in the general pacification. And as it was foreseen that the proposed diet might fail in bringing about the desired settlement, it was agreed in a separate treaty that in that case the peace should remain in full force till a final accommodation could be effected. This latter agreement Charles refused to sign; but it was not anticipated that he would endeavor to disturb it. Thus was terminated the first religious war in Germany, arising out of the league of Smalcald; by which, whatever we may think of the duplicity of Maurice, he was certainly the means of saving the liberties of the empire, as well as the Protestant religion, from the assaults of Charles V. (See Appendix, page 200.)

Pastoureaux, The, (1250 A. D.,) a French word meaning "young shepherds," the first democratic demonstration in France. Louis IX., king of France, endeared himself to his subjects by the simplicity of his manners and the sanctity of his life. When, in 1248, he led a French army against the sultan of Egypt, he was taken prisoner, and only released after a long negotiation, (1253.) He nevertheless remained a year in the Holy Land, to aid in its defence, in case the sultan should push his victory beyond Egypt; and he did not quit Palestine until the barons of the Holy Land had themselves assured him that his presence was no longer essential. Besides, he had just heard news which made it his duty to hasten his return to France. The insurrection of the *pastoureaux* had broken out. They consisted of the most miserable rustics, and mostly of shepherds, who, hearing of the cap-

tivity of their king, flew to arms, banded together, formed a large army, and announced their intention of going to deliver him. This may have been a mere pretext, or it may have been that the opinion which these poor people had already formed of Louis had inspired them with a vast, vague hope of comfort and deliverance. What is certain is, that these shepherds showed themselves everywhere hostile to the priests, and massacred them, administering the sacraments to themselves. They acknowledged for their leader an unknown man, whom they called grand-master of Hungary. They traversed Paris, Orleans, and a considerable part of France with impunity, but were ultimately dispersed and destroyed.

Pausanias, commander of the allied Greeks at the battle of Platææ, B. C. 479. In the following year he commanded the expedition of the allied Greeks against Asia, liberated the Greek cities in Cyprus, and besieged and took Byzantium. His ambition and insolence became offensive to his countrymen, and discontent drove him into treason. He entered into a secret treaty with the king of Persia; but this being discovered by the Ephors, he was recalled and superseded. He continued his treasonable intrigues, and these being detected by the revelation of a slave, his arrest was determined upon; but, to avoid the punishment due to his treason, he fled into a temple at Sparta, and the Lacedæmonians blocked up the door with stones, the first of which was placed by Pausanias's mother. He was there starved to death, about B. C. 467.

Peel, Sir Robert, (1788–1850,) Prime Minister of England, and the most distinguished statesman of his age. His father, in 1809, had him brought into parliament as member for Cashel, and the House of Commons became thenceforward the arena of his life. He had not sat long in it before he proved himself an able speaker and a laborious and sagacious worker. He was, after 1834, often at the head of the administration, and from 1842 his power was as real as his position was dignified. In the autumn of 1845, the famine, which then threatened to sweep over the country, roused a universal agitation, free from all party strife; and meetings were held in all the large towns, praying for the immediate opening of the ports, to relieve the people from their sufferings. Shortly after the opening of the session of 1846, he formally announced, to the surprise of all, the hope of thousands, and the rage and dismay of his party, his intention, not of modifying, but of entirely repealing the corn laws. Instantly he became the object of the most unsparing invective, unceasing attack, and bitter reproach, from those who accused him of having deceived them. All this he bore with firmness and equanimity. The corn laws were abolished in June, 1846, and free trade proclaimed as the commercial policy of the country. Simultaneously with the passing of this measure, Sir Robert Peel resigned office. His country owes to him as deep a debt of gratitude as to any statesman that has ever presided over her destinies. The reformer of the criminal code, the introducer of an effective system of police, the founder of a system of currency which has been lauded by the most eminent financiers, the restorer of civil equality to Christians of all denominations, and his last and greatest achievement — the introduction into British policy of the principles of free trade — might well be entitled to the highest honors that could be rendered to his memory. (See "Political Biography," by T. Doubleday, and "Life," by Guizot.)

Peloponnesian War. See Appendix, page 175.

Pericles, the great Athenian statesman. In his youth he applied himself to the study of philosophy, under the guidance of Anaxagoras, who had a most powerful influence on him, and remained one of his most intimate friends. To his other acquirements he added that of extraordinary eloquence; and thus prepared, he began to take part in public affairs about B. C. 469. The popular party soon recognized him as their chief, and he got various measures passed for their gratification. In B. C. 444 he became sole ruler of Athens; and the aim of his policy was to extend and strengthen her empire, and to make the people worthy of their position. Under his administration the navy was increased, commerce extended, general prosperity advanced, and Athens adorned with noble buildings. Phidias was the friend of Pericles, and under his direction the Parthenon, the Propylæa, the Odeon, and other temples and monuments, the admiration of all time, were erected. Pericles directed Athens during the first two years of the Peloponnesian war, in the second year of which the plague broke out in Athens, and the popular discontent vented itself in the prosecution of the great ruler. He was fined, but soon regained his influence. The plague carried off many of his friends and relatives, and, last of all, his favorite son. This loss broke his heart, and, after a lingering illness, he died, B. C. 429.

Perseus, the last King of Macedonia. The great event of his reign was the war with the Romans, which, long expected, began in 171. In 168 the war was ended by the total defeat of Perseus at Pydna, by L. Æmilius Paulus. Perseus escaped with his children and treasures to Samothrace, but soon gave himself up, and, after being led in triumph at Rome, was cast into prison. He was, however, allowed to spend his last years at Alba. (See Appendix, pages 188, 189.)

Persius, (34–62 A. D.) Aulus Persius Flaccus is the third in order of the four great Roman satirists, (Lucilius, Horace, Persius, Juvenal.) His extant works consist of six short satires, than which few productions have ever enjoyed more widely diffused and more enduring popularity. A long unbroken chain of testimonies might be linked together, reaching from the period of their publication through the darkest portion of the middle ages down to the revival of literature. The satires have been often translated into English, of which the translation of Barton Holiday is the most quaint, that of Gifford the most accurate, and that of Dryden the most spirited and poetical.

Peter Damiani. See DAMIANI.

Peter the Cruel (1334–1368) was son of Alfonso XI., and succeeded his father in 1350, under the regency of his mother and Albuquerque, his tutor. He earned the title of the Cruel by a long series of atrocious cruelties, beginning with the assassination of Eleonora de Guzman, his father's favorite mistress. He married Blanche of Bourbon, abandoned her in three days, and afterward had her secretly murdered. Wives, mistresses, brothers, cousins swell the list of his victims, besides a great number of nobles killed by his orders. At last, in 1366, a revolt broke out, headed by Henry of Trastamara, his natural brother, and supported by French troops under Bertrand du Guesclin. Pedro was defeated and expelled; but by the aid of the Black Prince, who won the victory of Najaro and took Bertrand prisoner in 1367, he was re-established on the throne. On the withdrawal of the Black Prince, who was ungraciously treated, Pedro indulged his revenge, and a fresh revolt took place. Pedro was defeated by Henry at Montiel, and was killed by him in the tent of Du Guesclin, March, 1368. He was succeeded by his murderer, who became the founder of the house of Trastamara. (Genealogy, XV. See Dillon: HISTORY OF THE REIGN OF PETER THE CRUEL.)

Peter the Great, (1672–1725,) the founder of the greatness of Russia. He obtained the sole authority in 1689, on the retirement of his brother Ivan, with whom he had been associated in the government of the empire. After having suppressed a conspiracy of the Strelitzes against his life, he travelled in foreign countries, not in the character of czar, but as member of an embassy. At Amsterdam he worked, incognito, in a ship-yard; and went to the village of Zaandam, where he caused himself to be enrolled among the workmen, under the name of Peter Michaeloff. Here he lived in a little hut for seven weeks, made his own bed, and prepared his own food, corresponded with his ministers at home, and labored at the same time in ship-building. After having visited England, he returned to Russia in 1698, and earnestly endeavored to improve and soften the rude and barbarous manners of his subjects. In 1700 he entered upon a war with Sweden, which lasted till 1721. (See Appendix.) Peter gained by the Swedish war the navigation of the Baltic: this was the prize he chiefly wished to obtain; for maritime commerce was the principal object of his solicitude, as the only means of giving animation to his extensive dominions. The communication between the provinces of his dominions was facilitated by 11 great rivers, which he endeavored to unite, and thus to establish a communication by water between the Caspian, Baltic, and White seas. Peter suppressed the patriarchate, and made himself head of the church as well as of the state. In 1703 he founded St. Petersburg, and began the fortifications of Cronstadt. He extended the limits of the empire, both in Europe and Asia; changed the face of Russia by his zealous promotion of trade, navigation, manufactures, and education; effected an immense change in the manners and customs of the Russians; and, after the conclusion of peace with Sweden, received the title of emperor of all the Russias and father of his country. Reforming others, he failed to reform himself, but remained to the last an ignorant, coarse, brutal savage, indulging in the lowest vices, and gloating over scenes of cruel suffering. A short Life of Peter the Great has been edited by Wight.

Peter the Hermit, the preacher of the first Crusade, was a French soldier of Amiens, who, quitting the military profession, made a pilgrimage to the

Holy Land about 1093. Instigated by the difficulties and dangers he had undergone in his progress, and profoundly affected by the sad condition of the few Christians residing in that country, he went to Rome, obtained the sanction of Pope Urban II. for his project, and then travelled over the principal countries of Europe, and with earnest and resistless eloquence preached a crusade for the recovery of Palestine from the infidels. Peter himself led one part of the first irregular band of crusaders, amounting to about 100,000 men; another division being led by his lieutenant, Walter the Penniless, a man of some ability, who attempted to introduce order among the unmanageable host. After crossing Germany, and encountering severe resistance in Hungary, Peter reached Constantinople, where he was welcomed by the emperor Alexis. He stayed there while the host of crusaders passed on to fresh conflicts and sufferings. He was at the siege of Antioch in 1097, but, despairing of success, fled from the camp, and was brought back by force. He accompanied the crusaders to the Holy City, and made a discourse to them on the Mount of Olives. Subsequently, he returned to his native country, where he founded the abbey of Noir-moutier, and died in 1115.

Petition of Right, (1628 A. D.) In 1628, Charles I. summoned his third parliament. To check the violent exertions of prerogative by forced loans, arbitrary imprisonment, and the levy of taxes without the consent of the commons, the assent of the king was required to a bill which enacted, 1st, that no loan or tax might be levied but by the consent of parliament; 2d, that no man might be imprisoned but by legal process; 3d, that no commissions should be granted for executing martial law. To this bill, called "The Petition of Right," as implying that the privileges secured by it had been already enjoyed, Charles reluctantly assented.

Petrarca, Francesco, (Petrarch,) (1304–1374,) one of the most illustrious poets and scholars of Italy. His father brought him up to the law, for which he had no relish. He studied at Montpellier and Bologna, and early made acquaintance with many eminent persons. His passion for the beautiful Laura, which gave shape and color to the rest of his life, was first kindled in 1327, as on the 6th of April, of that year, she worshipped beside him. She was then 19, and had been married two years to Hugues de Sade. Petrarch's love for her was true and permanent, but was not returned by Laura, whose conduct throughout was marked by purity, kindness, and good sense. To escape or weaken the force of his hopeless passion, he travelled frequently, and lived for some time in the secluded valley of Vaucluse. He took part in the political affairs of his time, was the friend of popes and princes, and was employed in many important negotiations. He rendered very great services to literature and learning by his diligent researches for and collections of ancient manuscripts. By the gift of his books to the Church of St. Mark at Venice, he became the founder of its famous library. He was the friend of Boccaccio, who shared with him the honor of reviving classical literature, and the friend of Rienzi, with whose enterprise, as tribune of Rome, he warmly sympathized. In 1341, Petrarch received the highest testimony of the renown which he had acquired as poet and scholar, by being crowned as laureate in the Capitol at Rome. The death of Laura took place on the 6th of April, 1348, the anniversary of the day on which Petrarch first saw her. The tidings reached him in Italy, and he made a touching note of it in his Virgil. He died, sitting among his books, July 18th, 1374, at Aigua. Petrarch's works are partly in Italian and partly in Latin. The latter were those on which his reputation in his own day rested; but the former are those by which he is most known. His Italian sonnets, canzoni, and "Triumphs" are all sweet, exquisite, glowing variations on one theme, Laura; those written after her death have an added purity and loftiness of sentiment. His Latin poems consist of an epic on the second Punic war, entitled "Africa," epistles, and eclogues. The letters, addressed to a large number of the most eminent persons and potentates of the time, and treating of the exciting events amidst which he lived, are of high interest and great value. (See Campbell's Life of Petrarch.)

Petrus de Vinea. See VINEA.

Phaedrus, an elegant Latin poet, a native of Thrace, appears to have been the freedman of Augustus. Most of his fables are translated or imitated from those of Æsop. This Æsop lived about 600 B. C. The fables ascribed to him have in many respects an Eastern character, alluding to Asiatic customs, and introducing panthers, peacocks, and monkeys among their persons. This makes it likely that they are derived from an Indian source.

Phidias, (490–432 B. C.,) the great Greek sculptor. He began to distinguish himself about 461, and was one of the most intimate friends of Pericles, under whose rule he was appointed director of all the great temples and monuments which were to be erected in the city. Of these the most important were the Parthenon, or Temple of Athene, on the Acropolis, and the Propylæa. He executed a colossal statue of the goddess for the interior of the temple with his own hand. The "Elgin Marbles" of the British Museum were the sculptured decorations of that unrivalled temple. Phidias spent some years at Olympia, and there he executed the most magnificent of all his works — the statue of the Olympian Zeus. Like the Athene, it was of ivory and gold, was nearly 60 feet in height, although a seated figure, and was deemed the greatest production of Greek art. It was destroyed by fire at Constantinople, whither it had been carried by the emperor Theodosius.

Philadelphia, (founded, 1682 A. D.) William Penn, the founder of Philadelphia, was the son of Admiral Penn, the conqueror of Jamaica. The son and grandson of naval officers, his thoughts had from boyhood been directed to the ocean; the conquest of Jamaica by his father early familiarized his imagination with the New World, and in Oxford, at the age of 17, he indulged in visions of happiness, of which America was the scene. Bred in the school of Independency, he had, while hardly 12 years old, learned to listen to the voice of God in his soul, and at Oxford, where his excellent genius received the benefits of learning, the words of a Quaker preacher so touched his heart that he joined the despised sect. His father, bent on subduing his enthusiasm, beat him and turned him into the streets, to choose between poverty with a pure conscience, or fortune with obedience. He chose the first; but his father, being finally convinced of his integrity, became reconciled to him, and left him, on his death in 1670, a plentiful estate. Penn now devoted himself to the propagation of his opinions; and from that time published a great variety of tracts, and travelled in Holland and Germany to support the cause of Quakerism. In 1681, Charles II., in consideration of the services of his father, and sundry debts due to him from the crown at the time of his decease, granted Penn and his heirs, by letters patent, the province lying on the west side of the river Delaware, in North America, and made them absolute proprietors and governors of that country. The name, too, was changed in honor of Penn, from the New Netherlands to Pennsylvania. Upon this he published "A Brief Account of the Province of Pennsylvania," proposing an easy purchase of lands and good terms of settlement to such as were inclined to remove thither. In 1682 he embarked for his new colony, and in the following year he founded Philadelphia. There is an interesting "Life of William Penn" by Hepworth Dixon.

Philip of Macedon, (359–336 B. C.) The multitude of those persons increased who, born in the field and formed only to arms, wandered about in quest of adventures, and, being strangers to the arts of peace, sought only for commanders who would furnish them a regular stipend, and give them a share of the plunder. Philip, son of Amyntas, having, after many disturbances in Macedonia, ascended his paternal throne, made use of these adventurers to carry out his ambitious designs. But the cause which chiefly contributed to give a new condition to all the countries between the Adriatic and the Indus was the military education which Philip had received, under the precepts of Epaminondas, while he resided as a hostage at Thebes. With the knowledge which Philip eagerly imbibed from Epaminondas, he combined what the latter wanted, namely, the power of a monarch, and the boldness of an enterprising conqueror. Philip had, besides, pleasing manners and apparent gentleness, by which he engaged the affections of the soldiers and deceived the people; he was addicted to conviviality and to pleasures of all kinds, and was therefore the less dreaded. After Philip had exercised his arms in subduing his immediate neighbors, he acquired, to the astonishment of all Greece, a seat in the Amphictyonic Council, and filled every place from Byzantium to the Peloponnesus with the terror of his arms, and at the same time with the reputation of his mildness and generosity, his good faith and patriotism. Athens at length took arms in the cause of expiring freedom. The decisive battle was fought in the field of Chæronea, (338.) The Athenians and their allies, particularly the Theban body called "the sacred band," fought in a manner worthy of the last contest in defence of ancient liberty. They were defeated. "The sacred band," 400 in number, inseparable in death, fell together, loaded with glorious wounds, and the liberty of Greece expired with them. Philip soon after assembled a congress at Corinth, and was named general of the confederate Greeks in the war

to be undertaken against Persia. But in 336 he was assassinated at Ægæ, and that war was reserved for his greater son, Alexander.

Philip of Orleans, (1674–1723,) Regent of France. He had for his tutor the infamous Dubois. Louis XIV. showed great distrust and suspicion of the duke of Orleans, and very grave suspicions arose among the people when the dauphin, the duke and duchess of Burgundy, and their eldest son all died almost suddenly, and within a year. Philip's life was endangered, and the public excitement was unbounded. On the death of Louis XIV., in 1715, the duke of Orleans had himself proclaimed regent with absolute power, and at once adopted a policy in most respects the reverse of that of Louis. He protected the Jansenists, abandoned the cause of the Stuarts, maintained peace, and reformed the finances, adopting the schemes of the Scotchman Law. Plots were formed against the regent, in which Cardinal Alberoni took a leading part, but they were foiled; and in 1719 war was declared against Spain, which was soon closed by an advantageous peace. France, however, was distracted with domestic disquietudes and calamities, and the example of the regent hastened the decline of religion and the corruption of morals. The influence of Dubois as first minister was supreme, and the regent sacrificed everything to him. In 1723, Louis XV. came of age and assumed the government, making the duke of Orleans his prime minister. But the duke died suddenly the same year.

Philip the Bold. See CHARLES THE BOLD.

Pindar, (518–442.) He was a native of Bœotia, sprung from a family who for several generations had shown a special talent for music and poetry. His brilliant genius soon made him known wherever the language of Hellas was understood. He was invited to Syracuse by Hiero, where he remained about four years, the brightest ornament of this poetical society. Though his usual residence was at Thebes, yet he made frequent journeys to be present at those assemblies and festive celebrations which his verse commemorated and adorned. These were the epinician odes composed in honor of the victor at one of the four great games of Greece, the Olympian, Pythian, Nemean, and Isthmian. These odes show throughout how deeply his character was tinctured with a reverential feeling toward the objects of religious worship. He made frequent pilgrimages to the temple of Apollo at Delphi, where centuries afterward the iron chair was shown on which he sat while chanting the hymns he had composed in honor of the god. He died at the age of 80. The enthusiastic admiration of Greece for him increased as the glory of Thebes gradually vanished into the mists of the past. When Alexander took Thebes, and razed it to the ground, he gave strict orders to his soldiers that no damage should be done to the house where Pindar had lived and died.

Pisistratus, an Athenian citizen, who usurped the sovereignty of his country. He was ambitious, eloquent, and courageous; and, pursuing the policy which has so often succeeded in democracies, he gained over the lower classes of citizens by his affability and unbounded liberality. He made no attempt to abolish the wise laws of Solon, but confirmed and extended their authority; and, though he was twice expelled, he regained the sovereignty, and continued to exercise it, not as the oppressor, but as the father of his country. He died B. C. 527, leaving two sons, Hippias and Hipparchus, to inherit his power. He established a public library at Athens, and collected and arranged the Homeric poems. A disgraceful passion occasioned Hipparchus to commit an outrage against Harmodius and Aristogiton, in consequence of which he was assassinated by them in the tumult attending the celebration of a great festival. His brother Hippias, informed of this event, strengthened his own power with greater vigilance and became vigorous in his administration. The Athenians, discontented with this tyrannical suspicion, called in the aid of the Lacedæmonians, and Cleomenes, king of Sparta, drove out the usurper, who sought refuge in the court of Persia. This happened in 510 B. C., in the same year that the Tarquins were driven from Rome and the Pythagoræans from the towns of Southern Italy.

Pitt, William, (1759–1806,) Prime Minister of England. In 1780 he was returned to the House of Commons, and three years later, Pitt, although at that time only in his 24th year, assumed the station of prime minister. The French Revolution broke out, and produced agitation in every neighboring state. War against free principles was declared on the one side, while on the other the friends of reformation saw themselves confounded with ignorant visionaries. Under this state of things a vigilant eye and a steady hand were obviously necessary; and whatever opinions may be

formed by different parties, certain it is that he displayed talents, energy, and perseverance almost unparalleled in the world's history. At length he, in 1801, resigned office; but in 1804, once more resumed his post at the treasury. Returning to power as a war minister, he exerted all the energy of his character to render the contest successful, and found means to engage the two great military powers of Russia and Austria in a new coalition against Napoleon; which was, however, dissolved by the battle of Austerlitz. But his health was now in a precarious state; and hereditary gout, aggravated by public cares and a too liberal use of wine, had undermined his constitution, and he died January 23d, 1806. Pitt was a minister of commanding powers, both as a financier and an orator: his eloquence, though not so imaginative as that of Burke, or so captivating as that of his father, was more uniformly just and impressive than either; while the indignant severity and keenness of his sarcasm were unequalled. A Life of Pitt has been published by Earl Stanhope.

Pizarro, Francisco, (1475–1541,) the conqueror of Peru. He embarked, in 1510, with some other adventurers, for America; and, in 1524, after having distinguished himself under Nuñez de Balboa on many occasions, he associated at Panama with Diego de Almagro and Hernandez Lucque, a priest, in an enterprise to make fresh discoveries. In this voyage they reached the coast of Peru, but being too few to make any attempt at a settlement, Pizarro returned to Spain, where all that he gained was a power from the court to prosecute his object. However, having raised some money, he was enabled again, in 1531, to visit Peru, where a civil war was then raging between Huascar, the legitimate monarch, and his half-brother Atahualpa, the reigning inca. Pizarro, by pretending to take the part of the latter, was permitted to march into the interior, where he made the unsuspecting chief his prisoner; then, extorting from him, as it is said, a house full of precious metals by way of ransom, he had him tried for a pretended conspiracy, and condemned him to be burnt, allowing him first to be strangled, as a reward for becoming a Christian. In January, 1535, the conqueror laid the foundation of Lima, and called it the "City of the Kings." In 1537 a contest arose between him and Almagro, who was defeated and executed. The son and friends of Almagro, however, avenged his death, and, on June 26th, 1541, Pizarro met with the fate he so richly deserved, being assassinated in his palace at Lima.

Plato. Literature had attained the greatest splendor since the time of Socrates, who first knew and acknowledged that man has no insight into the nature of things, and that the sum of all wisdom is the knowledge of ourselves. Socrates himself left absolutely nothing in a written form. His philosophy is revealed to us in the works of his disciples, Plato and Xenophon. In the dialogues of Plato we find Socrates brought forward as leading the conversations, and his opinions and biography are so closely interwoven with them that we cannot tell whether the light that shines on us comes from this or that side of the twin-star Socrates and Plato. These dialogues, which have come down to us complete, are unrivalled in their union of the philosophic and poetic spirit; the depth of the philosopher and the rigorous exactitude of the logician are blended with the highest splendor of the imagination of the poet. In range of speculation they are unparalleled. Out of Plato, says Emerson, come all things that are still written and debated among men of thought.

Plautus, T. Maccius, (B. C. 225–184,) the most celebrated Roman comic poet. He spent the greater part of his life at Rome, where at one time he is said to have been reduced to the necessity of grinding corn with a hand-mill for a baker. He gained immense popularity with his countrymen by his numerous comedies, based, many of them, on Greek models, but made his own by a bold treatment and clever adaptation of them to Roman audiences. Twenty of his comedies are still extant out of the twenty-one pronounced genuine by Varro. One hundred and thirty were current under his name. His plays were still acted in the reign of Domitian, and some of them have been imitated by modern dramatists. There are several English translations of Plautus.

Pliny the Elder, (23–79 A. D.,) one of the most celebrated writers of ancient Rome. As an inquirer into the works of nature he was indefatigable, and he lost his life in a last attempt to gratify his thirst for knowledge. Being at Misenum with a fleet which he commanded, on August 24th, A. D. 79, his sister desired him to observe a remarkable cloud which had just appeared. Pliny discovering that it proceeded from Mount Vesuvius, ordered his galleys to sea, to assist the inhabitants on the coast, while he himself steered as near as possible to the foot of the mountain, which now sent forth vast quantities of burning rock and lava. Pliny and his companions landed at

Stabiæ, but were soon obliged to leave the town for the fields, where the danger, however, was equally great, from the shower of fire which fell upon them. In this state they made the best of their way to the shore; but Pliny, who was very corpulent, fell down dead, suffocated probably by the noxious vapors. The eruption which caused his death was that in which the cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii were destroyed, in the first year of the emperor Titus. Pliny wrote several works which have perished, but his name and fame are preserved by his great work, entitled "Natural History," in 37 books, one of the most precious monuments of antiquity extant. Its contents do not answer to its title, but are immensely various in character. It is a laborious compilation, from almost innumerable sources, of facts, observations, and statements on almost all branches of natural science, on the fine arts, on inventions, and other subjects.

Plutarch, (46–120 A. D.,) the celebrated Greek biographer and moralist, was a native of Chæronea, in Bœotia. He visited Italy, and spent some time at Rome, lecturing there on philosophy, as early as the reign of Domitian. His great work is entitled "Parallel Lives," and consists of biographies of forty-six eminent Greek and Romans, arranged in pairs, each pair accompanied by a comparison of characters. They are written with a moral purpose, and present, not orderly narratives of events, but portraitures of men, drawn with much graphic power, with great good sense, honesty, and kind-heartedness. "Plutarch's Lives," as tested by modern criticism, are not historical authorities; they were written with a practical, not a critical aim. They set before us the most famous types of Greek and Roman character as understood by a careful, learned, imaginative, and philosophical writer of Trajan's time. To Englishmen, beside their intrinsic value, they possess the special interest of having been Shakspeare's main authority in his great classical dramas. They were accessible to him in North's version; and the correspondence between the Plays and the Lives is traceable in incident upon incident, personage after personage, and in some places almost line after line, and word after word. Few books of ancient or modern times have been so widely read, so generally admired, as these "Lives."

Polish Election in 1734. Poland had first begun to emerge into importance in the reign of Wladislaus Loktek, in the early part of the 14th

century. Its boundaries were enlarged by his son and successor, Casimir III., surnamed the Great, who having ceded Silesia to the king of Bohemia, compensated himself by adding Red Russia, Podolia, Volhynia, and other provinces to his dominions. Casimir, having no children, resolved to leave his crown to his nephew Louis, son of his sister and of Charles Robert, king of Hungary, (see Genealogy, VIII.,) and with this view he summoned a national assembly at Cracow, which approved the choice he had made. This proceeding, however, enabled the Polish nobles to interfere in the succession of the crown, and to render it elective, like that of Hungary and Bohemia; so that the Polish constitution became a sort of aristocratic republic. The kingdom, or as the Poles themselves called it, republic of Poland, required from this peculiar constitution the greatest vigor and ability in the prince who governed it. The only class of Poles that enjoyed any political rights was the nobles, comprising some 100,000 families. The rest of the population was composed either of serfs, who were entirely at the disposal of their masters, or the inhabitants of towns, who, though free, could neither hold public office nor exercise any legislative power. The diet, chosen only by the nobles, possessed the whole power of the government; it elected the king, made the laws, and even took a part in the executive administration. Notwithstanding, however, that the diet possessed such extensive powers, it lay at the mercy of any single member, who, by virtue of what was called the "Liberum Veto," might annul its proceedings. Since the establishment of this elective government the internal affairs of Poland had been constantly subject to foreign interference. The throne of Poland was rendered vacant by the death of Augustus II., February 1st, 1733. Frederick Augustus, son and successor in the Saxon electorate, also became a candidate for the Polish crown. This prince had married a daughter of the late emperor Joseph I. Her eventual claim to the Austrian succession, as child of the elder brother, might be considered preferable to that of the daughter of Charles VI., the present emperor, who therefore extorted from Frederick Augustus a renunciation of his pretensions, through his wife, to the Austrian succession, and, in return, engaged to assist him to the Polish throne. In the mean time, Stanislaus Leczinski, whom Charles XII. had invested with the sovereignty of Poland in 1704, (now become father-in-law to Louis XV.,) was a second time chosen king. But the emperor, assisted by the Russians,

obliged the Poles to proceed to a new election, and the elector of Saxony was raised to the throne, under the name of Augustus III., Stanislaus, as formerly, being forced to abandon his crown. Lewis XV. thought himself injured in the person of his father-in-law, and, determined to be revenged on the emperor, he entered into an alliance with the kings of Spain and Sardinia, and a war was begun which has been called the war of the Polish succession. (See Appendix, page 208.)

Polybius, (204–122 B. C.,) the Greek historian. He was one of the thousand Achæans carried to Italy, in 168, on the charge of not having assisted the Romans against Perseus. He lived in the house of Æmilius Paulus, and became the intimate friend of his son Scipio, whom he accompanied to the siege of Carthage. His great work is a general history of the affairs of Greece and Rome from B. C. 220 to B. C. 146, prefaced by a summary view of early Roman history. Five only of its 40 books are now extant, but these are among the most important literary remains of antiquity; for Polybius spared no pains to ascertain facts, studied and travelled extensively, had practical acquaintance both with politics and war, and insight into the relations of things. His aim was didactic, and a large part of his history consists of disquisitions.

Polycarp. See ST. POLYCARP.

Pombal, (1699–1782,) a Portuguese statesman. He aimed to secure the throne of Joseph Emmanuel against the factions and conspiracies which surrounded it, and gave new life to industry and commerce. When, in 1755, the people were stunned by the great earthquake of Lisbon, he contributed powerfully to the revival of courage and activity. Pombal introduced many reforms and changes in the government; but as his measures were frequently severe and arbitrary, he made many enemies, and on the death of the king, in 1777, he was disgraced, and exiled to his estates, where he died. Pombal has been called the Portuguese Richelieu.

Pompey, (**Cneius Pompeius Magnus**,) the Triumvir, the great rival of C. Julius Cæsar. He served under his father in the Italian campaigns, and at 23 years of age, as an adherent of the aristocratic party, he raised three legions and joined Sulla, who, for his successes against the Marian forces, greeted him with the title of imperator. After further successes in Sicily and Africa, he received the surname of Magnus. He subsequently joined the democratic party, and had some great measures of reform carried; the chief of which were the restoration of the tribunes, and a change in the constitution of the law courts. In 67 he was invested with the command of the expedition against the pirates of the Mediterranean, and in forty days he had swept them from the sea. The next year Pompey was appointed to the chief command against Mithridates, whom he defeated. He received the submission of Tigranes of Armenia, and made Pontus a Roman province. He next conquered Syria and Judea, took Jerusalem after a three months' siege, and intruded into the Holy of Holies. After regulating the affairs of the East, he returned to Italy, and in 61 had the honor of a third triumph. By the refusal of the senate to confirm his arrangements in the East, he was induced to join the party of Cæsar, and formed with him and Crassus the alliance known as the first triumvirate. He also married, for his fourth wife, Julia, the daughter of Cæsar. In 55 he was consul with Crassus, and Spain was assigned him for his province; but his popularity and influence were waning. The death of Julia loosened his alliance with Cæsar, and by the death of Crassus the triumvirate was dissolved. During the disorders which followed the death of Clodius, Pompey was made sole consul, rejoined the aristocratic party, and resolved on war with Cæsar. As Cæsar advanced to Rome, Pompey quitted it, and soon after left Italy, and established himself at Dyrrachium, where he frustrated Cæsar's attempts to blockade him. The great final conflict took place on the plain of Pharsalia, B. C. 48, when Pompey was defeated, and fled to Egypt. He was murdered by order of the ministers of the young king immediately on his arrival. His body was left on the sands, and his head taken to Cæsar, who shed some manly tears at the sight, and had it burnt with fitting honors.

Pontine Marshes drained. These marshes were situated in the south of Latium, at the foot of the Volscian mountains, extending from the neighborhood of Cisterna to the sea at Terracina. They occupy a space of about 30 miles in length by 7 or 8 in breadth; and are separated from the sea on the west by a broad tract of sandy plain, covered with forest, which is also perfectly level, and intermixed with marshy spots, and pools and lagoons of stagnant water, so that it is almost as unhealthy as the regular marsh.

As early as 312 B. C. the Appian Way appears to have been carried through the midst of the marshes, and a canal conducted along with it from Forum Appii to Terracina, which canal became also much resorted to as a mode of traffic. Various attempts were made in ancient times to drain the Pontine marshes. The first of these was in B. C. 160, by the consul Cornelius Cethegus, which would seem to have been for a time successful; but the result obtained was but a partial one; and we find them relapsing into their former state before the close of the republic, so that the drainage of the Pontine marshes is noticed among the great public works projected by the dictator Cæsar, which he did not live to execute.

Pope, Alexander, (1688–1744,) the celebrated poet. At the age of 12 he removed with his parents to Binfield, in Windsor Forest, where his father had purchased a small estate. Here he wrote his "Ode on Solitude," the first-fruits of his poetic genius. It was here also that he first met with the works of Spenser, Waller, and Dryden, the latter of which he studied as his model. At the age of 16 he wrote his "Pastorals," which procured him the friendship of the principal wits of the time. Pope then undertook his translation of the "Iliad," which he published by subscription, and cleared by it above £5,000. Part of this sum he laid out in the purchase of a house at Twickenham, whither he removed in 1715. After completing the "Iliad," he undertook the "Odyssey," for which also he obtained a liberal subscription. He was, however, materially assisted in these works by the learning and abilities of others. Envious writers of the minor class made frequent splenetic attacks on him, and in 1727 he vented his resentment in a mock heroic, entitled "The Dunciad," in which he exposed to ridicule many persons who had given him no offence. The works on which his fame chiefly rests are (besides the Dunciad) the "Rape of the Lock," the "Epistle of Eloisa," the "Essay on Man," the "Moral Essays," and the "Epistle to Dr. Arbuthnot." Pope, with talent enough for anything, might deserve to be ranked among the most distinguished prose writers of his time, if he were not its greatest poet; but it is in the latter character that he falls to be noticed in the history of our literature. He was emphatically the poet of the highly artificial age in which he lived; and his excellence lay in the accordance of all his tastes and talents, of his whole moral and intellectual constitution, with the spirit of that condition of things. Not touches of natural emotion, but the titillation of wit and fancy make up the charm of his poetry.

Popes, Return of the, to Rome, (1376.) After the Popes had succeeded in subjecting all the princes and people of the Western world to their spiritual authority, they began to acquire temporal dominion in Italy. This involved the court of Rome in projects, in the pursuit of which the foundations of its greatness were utterly neglected; for its reputation diminished in proportion as it approached to the character and principles displayed in the courts of temporal princes. The papacy had never sustained a severer shock than that which it received in the course of the contests between Boniface VIII. and Philip the Fair of France. Imprisoned, insulted, deprived eventually of life by the violence of Philip, a prince excommunicated, and who had gone all lengths in defying and despising the papal jurisdiction, Boniface had every claim to be avenged by the inheritors of the same spiritual dominion. When Benedict XI. rescinded the bulls of his predecessor, and admitted Philip the Fair to communion without insisting on any concessions, he acted perhaps prudently, but gave a fatal blow to the temporal authority of Rome. Benedict XI. lived but a few months, and his successor, Clement V., at the instigation, as is commonly supposed, of the king of France, by whose influence he had been elected, took the extraordinary step of removing the papal chair to Avignon. In this city it remained for more than seventy years; a period which Petrarch and other writers of Italy compare to that of the Babylonian captivity. The majority of the cardinals were always French, and the Popes were uniformly of the same nation. Timidly dependent upon the court of France, they neglected the interests and lost the affections of Italy. Rome, forsaken by her sovereign, nearly forgot her allegiance: what remained of papal authority in the ecclesiastical territories was exercised by cardinal legates, little to the honor or advantage of the Holy See. The residence of the Popes at Avignon gave very general offence to Europe, and they could not themselves avoid perceiving the disadvantage of absence from their proper diocese, the city of St. Peter, the source of all their claims to sovereign authority. But Rome, so long abandoned, offered but an inhospitable reception; Urban V. returned to Avignon, after a short experiment of the capital; and it was not till 1376 that the

promise, often repeated and long delayed, of restoring the papal chair to the metropolis of Christendom, was ultimately fulfilled by Gregory XI.

Porphyrius, (233–305 A. D.,) the bitter and eloquent antagonist of Christianity. He represents the last impotent struggles of expiring paganism against victorious Christianity. He was a most eloquent defender of a lost cause. It appears from the testimony even of antagonists, and from what we have left of his writings, that Porphyrius was a man of great abilities and very extensive learning. His principal work was a book against the Christians. Of the nature of this work we are not able to judge, as it has not come down to us. It was publicly destroyed by order of the emperor Theodosius. The attack was, however, sufficiently vigorous to call down upon him the fiercest maledictions and most virulent abuse. His name was employed as synonymous with everything silly, blasphemous, impudent, and calumnious.

Probus, Marcus Aurelius Valerius, Roman Emperor, was born at Sirmium, in Pannonia, became a ruler of the East, and in 276, was made emperor by the army there; obtained several victories over the barbarians, reigned with honor to himself, but was at length slain by his mutinous troops, in 282 A. D.

Ptolemæus, a celebrated astronomer and geographer. He was author of a "Syntax of Astronomy," but usually called the "Almagest," the name given it by the Arabian scholars. Its theories, including that of the central position and stability of the earth, and that of "epicycles" to explain the movements of other heavenly bodies, held their ground till the true system was expounded by Copernicus in the middle of the 16th century. The work is still valued for its catalogue of stars, corrected from the earlier one of Hipparchus. Ptolemy also wrote a great work on geography, chiefly consisting of lists of places in various countries, with latitudes and longitudes, and some notices of objects of interest. For 13 centuries it was an authority, and was only superseded after the great geographical discoveries of the 15th century.

Punic Wars. See Appendix, page 187.

Pyramids, The. The Pyramids are the royal tombs of the rulers of the Old Empire. There are still about 40 pyramids near Memphis, on the plain of Saccara, about 12 miles above the apex of the Delta, standing in five groups, the most celebrated of which is the group of Gizeh. They are quadrilateral buildings; the horizontal length of the sides gradually diminishes as the buildings ascend; they often end at the top in a flat superficies; their four sides are turned toward the four cardinal points of the compass. When a king commenced his reign, a small isolated hill of rock was fixed upon for his tomb, and a chamber excavated in it, with a passage communicating with the surface. Around and over this a course of masonry was built in a four-sided figure, converging at the top. Each king began the building of his pyramid as soon as he ascended the throne; he only designed a small one, to insure himself a complete tomb, even were he destined to be but a few years upon the throne. But with the advancing years of his reign, he increased it by successive layers, till he thought that he was near the termination of his life. If he died during the erection, then the external covering was alone completed, and the monument of death finally remained proportionate to the duration of the life of the king. If, in the course of centuries, all the other conditions which determine our calculations had equally remained, then, as by the rings of a tree, we might even now have been able to calculate the years in the reigns of particular kings by the coatings of the pyramids. The sacred guardian of the field of the pyramids is the great Sphinx, hewn from the rock, to spare, as a Greek inscription says, each spot of cultivable land. He represents, perhaps portrays, the reigning king, and the thick lips may indicate Ethiopian blood. The lion's body represents the monarch's might — the human head, his wisdom. The rock from which the figure is cut, broke the view of the pyramids, and to convert it into the Sphinx was a stroke of Egyptian genius.

Pyrrhus, (B. C. 318–272), King of Epirus, one of the greatest warriors of ancient times. His father, Æacidas, was deposed in 320, and Pyrrhus was brought up by Glaucias, an Illyrian prince, and by his aid was placed on the throne in 306. Expelled a few years later, he was received at the court of Antigonus, king of Syria, became the friend of his son, Demetrius Poliorcetes, and fought with distinction at the battle of Ipsus, (301,) where Antigonus fell. Pyrrhus then went to the court of Ptolemy Soter, king of Egypt, as a hostage for Demetrius, and there married Antigone, daughter

of the queen Berenice. With the aid of Ptolemy he recovered his kingdom, (296,) agreeing to share the sovereignty with Neoptolemus, who had been king since the expulsion of Pyrrhus. But he soon had his colleague put to death, and began to form projects of conquest. Failing in the attempt to get the crown of Macedonia, he carried on war with his old friend Demetrius, the successful competitor, joined the league of Seleucus, Ptolemy, and Lysimachus, and in 287 became king of Macedonia. He reigned seven months, and was then expelled, and retired to his Epirote dominions. After several years of peace, he passed over to Italy (281) to assist the Tarentines against the Romans. He turned the city from a playground for idlers into a camp, and compelled the citizens to become soldiers and help to fight their own battles. In the spring of 280 the Roman legion first came into hostile collision with the Greek phalanx, at the battle of Heraclea, on the Siris; and the consul Lævinus was defeated by Pyrrhus, whose elephants played an important part in the conflict. The loss of Pyrrhus was very heavy, and he made, through his great minister Cineas, proposals of peace to the senate. These were rejected, chiefly in consequence of the spirited appeal of the old censor Appius Claudius. Pyrrhus marched into Latium, passed Præneste, and, when within about twenty miles of Rome, returned to Tarentum. He received there the famous embassy, headed by Caius Fabricius, respecting the release of the Roman captives. In 279 he again defeated the Romans, under the consuls P. Sulpicius and P. Decius Mus, at Asculum, but with very great loss, especially of his Greek troops; so that he gladly took the first occasion of once more proposing peace. The consuls Q. Æmilius and C. Fabricius (278) having communicated to him an offer made by one of his attendants to poison him, and sent the traitor back, Pyrrhus dismissed all his prisoners without ransom, made a truce, and passed with his army into Sicily, where for two years he assisted the Greeks against the Carthaginians. After great successes, he failed in the attack on Lilybæum, became unpopular, and returned to Italy. The war was renewed, and ended in the following year (275) with the total defeat of Pyrrhus, by the consul Curius Dentatus, near Beneventum. He took back to Epirus the small remnant of his forces; invaded Macedonia, and again became king; attacked Sparta unsuccessfully, and was killed in a night attack on Argos, by a heavy tile thrown from a housetop by a woman, B. C. 272. Pyrrhus married several wives, one being a daughter of Agathocles, tyrant of Syracuse. One of his three sons succeeded him as king of Epirus; and one of his three daughters became the wife of Gelon, tyrant of Syracuse.

Pythagoras, (B. C. 580–504,) the celebrated Greek philosopher, was born at Samos. He travelled extensively, especially in Egypt, and was initiated in the most ancient Greek mysteries. He attached great importance to mathematical studies, and made several important discoveries in geometry, music, and astronomy. Aversion to the tyranny of Polycrates, in Samos, is said to have been the cause of his quitting that island, after his return from the East; and he ultimately settled at Crotona, one of the Greek cities of Southern Italy. There he set himself to carry out the purpose of instituting a society through which he might to some extent give embodiment and practical shape to his ideas. It was at once a philosophical school, a religious brotherhood, and a political association, and was composed of young men of the noblest families, not exceeding 300 in number. Pythagoras himself was chief or general of the order. The doctrines he taught, the discipline and observances he established, and the ultimate objects of the society are wrapped in mystery. Similar societies were founded in other cities of Italy, and through all of them Pythagoras exerted a considerable influence on political affairs, and especially in opposition to democratic and revolutionary movements. This became at length the occasion of a popular rising against the Pythagoreans at Crotona. The house in which they were assembled was burnt, many perished, and the rest were exiled. Similar tumults with similar results took place in other cities, and Pythagoras himself is believed to have died soon after at Metapontum. Among the doctrines of this extraordinary man are the following: that numbers are the principles of all things; that the universe is an harmonious whole, (*Kosmos*,) the heavenly bodies by their motion causing sounds, (*music of the spheres*;) that the soul is immortal, and passes successively into many bodies, (*metempsychosis*;) and that the highest aim and blessedness of man is likeness to the Deity. He was regarded with the highest veneration, as a superhuman being and a favorite of Heaven, and he probably encouraged such belief. And so far as respects his aim to train his followers to a wise, noble, rational, and religious life, it is evident that he was successful, and his influence on some of the greatest philoso-

phers of later times was very great. He left no written account of his doctrines: they were first committed to writing by Philolaus. Pythagoras is said to have been the first who took the title of *philosopher*, and the first who applied the term *Kosmos* to the universe. He shares with Thales and Xenophanes the high distinction of starting the problem of physical science—the study and interpretation of nature as an object governed by unchanging laws, instead of a variety of personal agencies, as conceived by the religious faith of earlier generations.

R.

Rabanus Maurus, (830 A. D.,) Abbot of Fulda, opposed bitterly the doctrine of transubstantiation. This term was about this time first used by Paschasius Radbert, a monk of Corvey. A more subtle opponent of this doctrine was John Scotus, of Erigena, a philosopher of a singularly subtle mind, who fathomed the very abysses of human thought. (See SCOTUS, ERIGENA.)

Rabelais, François, (1483–1553,) the celebrated French wit and satirist. He was at first a monk, but in consequence of having been punished for some indecorous behavior, he quitted the Benedictine order, studied medicine at Montpellier, and for a time practised as a physician. He subsequently obtained, through the influence of his patron, Cardinal du Bellay, whom he accompanied to the court of Rome, the rectory of Meudon. He was author of several books; but the only one by which he is known is the romance called "The Lives, Heroic Deeds, and Sayings of Gargantua and Pantagruel," an extravagant satire upon monks, priests, popes, and pedants, in which much obscenity and absurdity are blended with learning, wit, and humor. Rabelais was a conscientious teacher of his flock, and it was his pleasure to instruct the children in sacred music. His house was the resort of the learned, his purse was always open to the needy, and his medical skill was employed in the service of his parish.

Rameses Mei-Amoun, or, **the Great**, the great Egyptian conqueror, whose victorious march extended eastward to the confines of India; and then diverging toward the north, he turned back again by a long elliptical curve, and debouched upon the European shores of the Propontis. He was the true prototype of Alexander the Great—like him, an indefatigable promoter of the mixture of races and the diffusion of ideas. (See, for his reign and monuments, Appendix, page 170.) The written history of antiquity contains but one exact mention of him, and this it owes to Tacitus; and it has required all the progress of modern science applied to the researches of the past, to enable some of our contemporaries to exhume the real name of the Egyptian hero. He is the Sesostris of Herodotus. It has but lately been ascertained how the Greeks had come to write a name so different from that of Rameses. This royal name, in its most complete form, reads Ramesesou. From this form are derived several abbreviations, Sesou, Sesesou, and Ra-Sesesou, all used indifferently to designate Rameses Mei-Amoun. The Egyptians had known a number of kings whose names ended in the word *ra*, *sun*, (pronounced *ri*.) Sometimes it was written before the word, sometimes after it. In consequence of this custom, Ra-Sesesou was often written Sesesou-Ra (pronounced Sesesouri); and it was in this form that it was repeated to Herodotus, who transformed Sesesouri into Sesostris. The date assigned to him varies from 1500 to 1250. In the twelfth dynasty (about 2250 B. C.) we meet with a king whose name, Sesortasen, presented some analogy to that of Sesostris. He was also a conqueror. Many historians consider him the Sesostris of Herodotus. (See SESOSTRIS.)

Reconquest of Calais. See CALAIS.

Regent of Orleans. See PHILIP OF ORLEANS.

Regulus, Marcus Atilius, a Roman general, celebrated for his patriotism and devotion in the service of his country, was made consul a second time about 250 B. C., and with his colleague, Manlius Vulso, commanded in the first war against Carthage. Made prisoner by the Carthaginians, he was sent to Rome with an embassy, that peace might be procured on favorable terms, and bound himself, by an oath, to return if the terms were rejected.

He, however, considered it his duty to advise the continuance of the war; which being determined on, no entreaties or supplications could prevent him from fulfilling his solemn engagement; and the Carthaginians, on his return, put him to death.

Republic, French. See FRENCH REPUBLIC.

Richard II., (1366–1400 A. D.,) King of England, was the son of the Black Prince, and succeeded his grandfather, Edward III., in 1377. (See Genealogy, I.) Richard showed no small courage and presence of mind on the outbreak of an insurrection provoked by the poll-tax. Meeting the insurgents, with their leader, Wat Tyler, in Smithfield, he persuaded them to disperse. This conduct gained him the confidence of the nobility, and augured well for his reign; but, though gifted with great talents, Richard was by no means adequate to the discharge of the royal functions; he was profligate, and governed by his favorites. Among them was the earl of Suffolk, who was made by Richard lord chancellor. On the king's refusal to remove his favorite from office, the king himself was deprived of power, (1386,) and the administration intrusted to a council of regency, at the head of which was Richard's uncle, the duke of Gloucester. The king resumed the government in 1389, when he made the celebrated William of Wykeham chancellor. The famous quarrel between the dukes of Hereford and Norfolk took place in 1398, when both were banished by the king. After the death of Lancaster, in the following year, Hereford (now duke of Lancaster) returned, professedly to claim his estates, which had been seized by Richard; he was joined by the Percys and other nobles, and on Richard's return from Ireland, made him prisoner at Flint, and compelled him to resign the crown. Richard was sent to the Tower, then to Pomfret Castle, where he is commonly said to have been murdered. But nothing is certainly known of his end, and there are strong grounds for believing that he soon escaped from Pomfret and lived in Scotland till 1417 or 1419.

Richelieu, Armand Jean du Plessis, (1585–1642,) Cardinal, Duke de, first minister of France under Louis XIII. Destined at first for the army, he turned to the Church on his brother's resignation of the see of Luçon, and was consecrated bishop of the see in 1607. He attended punctually to his episcopal functions, especially aiming at the conversion of Calvinists, till 1614, when he was chosen deputy to the states-general. Having attracted attention by his eloquence, he was charged to harangue the young king, and was named almoner to the queen-mother, Mary of Medici. Two years later he became secretary of state for war and foreign affairs. He had at this time the protection of the queen's favorite, the marshal D'Ancre; after whose assassination, and the exile of the queen to Blois, he was banished from the court, first to his diocese, and then to Avignon, where he employed himself in writing theological works. He afterward managed a formal reconciliation between the king and the queen; was created cardinal in 1622; and in 1624 took his place in the council of state as first minister, a post which he held for eighteen years. He made himself absolute master of France, owning neither colleagues nor equals. His history for the rest of his life is the history of France, the government of which he chiefly contributed to make an absolute monarchy. In working out his policy, whether domestic or foreign, he was unscrupulous as to means. He broke the power of the nobility, put many of them to death, and imprisoned many more; he suppressed the Calvinists as a party in the state by his severe measures, and besieged and took Rochelle in 1628; while at the same time, to humiliate the house of Hapsburg, he aided the Protestants of Germany, Switzerland, and the Netherlands. Richelieu, meanwhile, like some other despotic ministers, distinguished himself by a liberal patronage of letters and the arts. In 1635 he founded the French academy; he greatly improved the royal printing-office; built the Palais Cardinal, since called Palais Royal, and rebuilt on a larger scale the Sorbonne. By the imposition of additional taxes he excited in his latter years general discontent, and conspiracies were formed to assassinate him. He died in 1642, having recommended Cardinal Mazarin as his successor. The remains of Richelieu were interred in the chapel of the Sorbonne, but were exhumed with others in the first years of the Revolution, and flung away, the head only being accidentally preserved.

Ripperda, John William, (1680–1737,) Baron de, a celebrated adventurer. He served some time as colonel of infantry in the Dutch army; and in 1715 was sent on a mission to Spain, where he acquired such an ascendency over Philip V. that the monarch took him into his service, made him chief minister, and created him a duke. At length he fell into disgrace, and was

imprisoned in the castle of Segovia, whence he escaped in 1728, and came to England. In 1731 he went to Morocco, where he was favorably received by Muley Abdalla, declared himself a convert to Mohammedanism, took the name of Osman, and obtained the chief command of the Moorish army at the siege of Ceuta. But the Moors being defeated, he fell into disgrace; and, retiring to Tetuan, he there died in 1737.

Robespierre, François Maximilien Joseph Isidore, (1759–1794,) one of the most violent of the French revolutionists. He was a lawyer by profession, and distinguished himself greatly at the bar. At the convocation of the states-general, in 1789, Robespierre was chosen deputy. He joined the Jacobin Club, and soon became one of its most influential members. His voice was raised against martial law, against the frequent punishment of death, and against slavery; and so invincible appeared to be his justice and integrity, that he obtained the title of "The Incorruptible." The flight of the king in 1791 gave Robespierre an opportunity of announcing clearly his republican views. In June of that year he was named public accuser, an office which he held till 1792. In the discussions respecting the fate of the king, he vehemently demanded his death, even without the form of a trial, as already condemned by the people. Robespierre was at this time one of the chiefs of the party named the Mountain, who were earnestly opposed by the Girondists. The influence of Robespierre prevailed, and the Girondists perished by the guillotine at the close of May, 1793. He had now virtually the power of a dictator, for in the Jacobin Club, in the Commune of Paris, in the Committee of Public Safety, and in the Convention he was supreme: the "Reign of Terror" had begun. The dictator set himself now to the establishment of a new worship. The Convention *decreed* "the Existence of the Supreme Being," and, on the 8th of June, 1794, Robespierre, in person, celebrated what he impiously termed "The Feast of the Supreme Being." But, powerful and secure as he appeared, his tyranny and mysterious denunciations had alarmed many of those who had been most intimately connected with him, and a conspiracy was formed for his destruction. Instead of acting with his accustomed decision, he secluded himself for more than a month; and when he again made his appearance in the National Convention, Tallien and others openly accused him; and, amidst cries of "A bas le tyran!" he, with his brother, and his friends St. Just, Couthon, and Le Bas, were arrested and sent to the Luxemburg prison. In the night, however, he was set free by the keeper, and conducted to the hall of the Commune of Paris, where Henriot, commander of the national guard, and others, were waiting to receive him. Meanwhile his enemies proceeded to action. Barras and other commissioners, directing the military of Paris, seized the fallen tyrant and his associates; and he entered his solitary room with apparent indifference. Le Bas, having provided a pair of pistols, killed himself with one of them; and Robespierre, taking the other, put the muzzle to his mouth, intending to blow out his brains, but the ball only fractured his lower jaw. On the next day, July 28th, 1794, he and his associates were guillotined. The fall of Robespierre is the revolution of 9th Thermidor. It is the close of the Reign of Terror. The name of Robespierre is abhorred. But the lapse of time has calmed the natural agitation of terror and hate, and made it possible to be fair to him. It is now admitted that, while good qualities and great qualities are scarcely discernible in him, he has *seemed* worse than he *was*. He was not guilty of all the atrocities charged on him; some of his colleagues surpassed him in cruelty; the terror became more terrible during his retirement; and it was his hope and purpose to put an end to it. A "Life of Robespierre" has been written by G. H. Lewis.

Romanows, The, in Russia, (1612 A. D.) The great men and nobles of the Russian empire, wearied with the confusions that prevailed, assembled for the purpose of deciding who should govern Russia. They passed three days in fasting and prayer. At length the nobles and the deputies of the states united their votes in favor of a boy of fifteen. Michaila Romanow, a son of the archbishop Philaretus, and grandson, by the mother's side, of the czar Ivan Vasilievitsch, was raised to the throne; and it was resolved that the czars should thenceforward be nominated from the family of Romanow, and invested with the sole power of the administration. Michaila ascended the throne of an humiliated empire: all the institutions of Ivan, and all the useful regulations that Boris attempted to introduce, had vanished; the exhaustion was universal, and the influence of Poland and Sweden predominant. The young czar conducted his measures for the restoration of the power of his kingdom, chiefly in a peaceable and imperceptible manner. The grandson of this Michaila Romanow was Peter the Great. The house

of Romanow gave eight rulers to Russia, and died out in 1730 with Peter II. (See Genealogy, XII.)

Rome, Foundation of, (about 750 B. C.) About 14 miles up from the mouth of the river Tiber, hills of moderate elevation rise on both banks of the stream, higher on the right, lower on the left bank. With the latter group there has been closely associated, for at least 26 centuries, the name of the Romans. From various settlements on these hills the city of Rome arose. The founding of a city, such as the legend assumes, is of course to be reckoned altogether out of the question: Rome was not built in a day. But the serious consideration of the historian may well be directed to the inquiry in what way Rome could so early attain that prominent political position which it held in Latium, so different from what the physical character of the locality would have led us to anticipate. This cannot have been the result of mere accident. The Tiber was the natural highway for the traffic of Latium; and its mouth, on a coast scantily provided with harbors, became necessarily the anchorage of seafarers. Moreover, the Tiber formed from very ancient times the frontier defence of the Latin stock against their northern neighbors. There was no place better fitted for an emporium of the Latin river and sea traffic, and for a maritime frontier fortress of Latium, than Rome. It combined the advantages of a strong position and of immediate vicinity to the river; it commanded both banks of the stream down to its mouth; it was so situated as to be equally convenient for the river navigator descending the Tiber or the Anio, and for the seafarer with vessels of so moderate a size as those which were then used; and it afforded greater protection from pirates than places situated immediately on the coast.

Rome, Burning of. See Appendix, page 184.

Rousseau, Jean Jacques, (1712–1778,) French philosopher. It was not till 1750 that he manifested his splendid literary talents. In that year he gained the prize offered by the Academy of Dijon, on the question, "Whether the revival of learning has contributed to the improvement of morals," taking the negative side of the question. From this period his pen became fertile and popular; but the appearance of his celebrated "Letter on French Music," (1753,) in which he pointed out its defects, excited a general storm. Singers and connoisseurs, who could not wield the pen, contributed to spread calumnies, pasquinades, and caricatures against the author, who retired to Geneva. Here he published "Julie, ou la Nouvelle Héloise," containing many new ideas about education. This was followed, in 1762, by "Emile, ou de l'Education;" which was anathematized by the archbishop of Paris, and ordered to be burnt by the Parliament of Paris and the authorities of Geneva. His famous "Contrat Social" appeared soon afterward, and this bold though superficial speculation on the condition and destiny of man and society alarmed and irritated men still more. Thenceforth his existence was passed in frequent changes of place, to escape real or fancied persecution, for his mind was now completely under the tyranny of the morbid habit of suspecting all his friends of insulting and conspiring against him. His last days were spent at Ermenonville, where he died suddenly, in 1778. Rousseau was the author of many works besides those we have noticed, all of them exhibiting his peculiar warmth and energy of style, and vigor of thinking. That he exercised a great influence over the opinions of his age at the period of the French Revolution, there can be no doubt; but his works, with all their fascination of splendid and passionate eloquence, have no place among the lights that men love and walk by. His social and political theories have no basis more solid than his personal feelings; and these he interpreted falsely.

Rubens, Peter Paul, (1577–1640,) the most distinguished painter of the Flemish school. He received an excellent education; and, after studying in his own country, he went to Italy, where he improved himself by copying the works of the best masters, but chiefly Titian. While in Italy he was employed by the duke of Mantua, not only as an artist, but on an embassy to Madrid. In 1620 he was employed by the princess Mary de' Medici to adorn the gallery of the Luxemburg with a series of paintings illustrative of the principal scenes of her life. While thus engaged, he became known to the duke of Buckingham, who purchased his museum. He was afterward employed by the infanta Isabella and the king of Spain in some important negotiations, which he executed with such credit as to be appointed secretary of the privy council. On coming to England with a commission from the infanta, he obtained the favor of Charles I. While there he painted the fine picture called "Peace and War," "William the

Silent," and the picture of "Charles I. as St. George;" for which he was knighted, and received a chain of gold. Rubens, beyond all comparison, was the most rapid in execution of the great masters; and, according to Sir Joshua Reynolds, he was the greatest master of the mechanical part of his art that ever existed. His works are very numerous and very diversified in subject. There are nearly a hundred in the picture gallery at Munich. The "Descent from the Cross," at Antwerp, is perhaps his masterpiece.

S.

Salamis, Battle of, (480 B. C.) Salamis is an island lying between the western coast of Attica and the eastern coast of Megaris, and forming the southern boundary of the bay of Eleusis. It is separated from the coasts both of Attica and Megaris by only a narrow channel. It is chiefly memorable on account of the great battle fought off its coast, in which the Persian fleet of Xerxes was defeated by the Greeks, (480 B. C.) The battle took place in the strait between the eastern part of the island and the coast of Attica. The Greek fleet was drawn up in the small bay in front of the town of Salamis, and the Persian fleet opposite to them, off the coast of Attica. The battle was witnessed by Xerxes from the Attic coast, who had erected for himself a lofty throne on one of the projecting proclivities of Mount Ægaleos.

Sallustius, Caius Crispus, (B. C. 86–35,) a Roman historian, distinguished equally for his talents and profligacy. His name was expunged from the list of senators in consequence of his extravagance and shameless debaucheries; but being restored by Julius Cæsar, and made governor of Numidia, he there amassed an enormous fortune by acts of rapine. His Histories of the Jugurthine War and the Conspiracy of Catiline bear testimony to his genius; but the rigid morality paraded in his writings forms a strange contrast to the vices of his life.

Samnite Wars. See Appendix, page 185.

Samos, (440 B. C.) The word denotes a height, especially by the sea-shore. Samos is a large island in that part of the Ægæan which is called the Icarian sea. In the maritime confederacy which was organized after the battle of Salamis, under Athenian rule, Samos seems to have been the most powerful of the three islands which were exempted from paying tribute. It was at the instance of her citizens that the common treasure was removed from Delos to Athens. But this friendship with Athens was turned into bitter enmity. Samos openly revolted, and a large force was despatched from Athens against it, under the command of 10 generals, two of whom were Sophocles and Pericles. After nine months, Samos was reduced to complete subjection.

Sardanapalus, (B. C. 950.) The true Sardanapalus was the mightiest conqueror of the Assyrian empire; and, instead of falling a victim to the power of the king of Babylon, it was he who first added Babylonia to the Assyrian empire. To use the words of his monuments, his conquests were pushed to Lebanon and the Great Sea, and the kings of all the chief Phœnician cities paid him tribute. Among them was Ethbaal, the father of Jezebel. This fixes his date. Sardanapalus is the first known of the Assyrian kings who left behind them those great works of architecture, which, lately disinterred from their mounds of shapeless ruin, have restored the monarchy to its true place in the history of the world; for while these palaces confirm by their magnitude the traditional splendor of the Assyrian kings, the scenes portrayed in sculpture on the walls exhibit a vivid picture of their life in war and peace.

Savonarola, Fra Girolamo, (1452–1498,) the great Florentine preacher and political reformer. Of a deeply reflective and even ascetic temper, which was confirmed by the frivolity and corruptions of the court of the princes of Este, he lived there in his youth a sad and solitary life; praying, fasting, and studying the Bible and the works of Thomas Aquinas. At the age of 23 he secretly left home and entered the Dominican order at Bologna. The presentiment that he was called to some extraordinary mission had been long fixed in his mind, and gave a tone to his preaching.

He distinctly announced the idea which pervaded all his discourses as it ruled his life—"The church will be scourged and regenerated, and that quickly"—and produced the most extraordinary impression on the crowds who listened to him. He spoke with the fervor and authoritative tone of a prophet, and acquired almost unbounded influence, both political and social. The invasion of Italy by the French, under Charles VIII., appeared to be the fulfilment of the alarming warnings repeatedly uttered by Savonarola, who was twice sent ambassador to Charles. After the expulsion of Piero de' Medici, successor of Lorenzo, in consequence of his disgraceful submission to the French, to whom he gave up some of the chief cities of the republic, Savonarola rose higher and higher, was real though not nominal head of the state, restored the democratic form of government, reformed taxation, abolished usury, passed a general amnesty, and improved the administration of justice; not a sword being drawn nor any blood shed, and not even a riot taking place. Great social and moral changes gave the city a new aspect; but these fruits of mere legislation were very transitory. Meanwhile the Pope, Alexander VI., was persuaded by the banished Piero de' Medici to send an order to the magistrates of Florence to prohibit his preaching, which they did in March, 1498. Then followed the famous "ordeal by fire," the immediate result of which was the loss of his credit with the populace. He returned to San Marco, of which he had been prior since 1491, and, with a few faithful friends, awaited the inevitable end. An attack was made on the convent by his enemies; he and his friends were seized and imprisoned; and after repeated examinations with brutal torture, they were hung and then burnt in the Piazza at Florence, May 23d, 1498. The most contradictory judgments have been passed on this extraordinary man, and there are points in his life which must probably remain insoluble problems. But one thing is certain, that he was a man of rare sincerity and intensely in earnest. It is noteworthy that the results of his action do not appear to have lasted beyond his own lifetime, nor his influence to have been more than local. Many of his sermons remain, and are sufficient to confirm the reports of his marvellous power as a speaker, and to testify to his clearness of spiritual vision, his profound scorn for mere shows, his deep and tender human affections, and his high principles of morality. The best account of him is Villari's History of his Life and Times, of which an English translation, by Leonard Horner, appeared in 1863. Perhaps the truest estimate of his character is that presented in "George Eliot's" fine story of Romola, in which Savonarola has a prominent place.

Saxe, Maurice, (1696–1750,) Count de, Marshal of France, was a natural son of Augustus II., king of Poland. After an unsuccessful attempt to get himself elected duke of Courland, he took service in the French army, distinguished himself in the campaigns of 1733–5, and was made lieutenant-general. In the war which followed the death of Charles VI., (see Appendix,) Count Maurice took a distinguished part. He captured Prague, defended Alsace, and in 1743 was named marshal of France. In the following year he held a command in Flanders. One of his most brilliant achievements was his victory over the English and Hanoverian forces at Fontenoy, in 1745. He was at the time "nearly dead with dropsy;" could not sit on horseback, except for minutes; was carried about in a wicker bed, and had a lead bullet in his mouth all day, to mitigate the intolerable thirst. Saxe was a man of great size and strength; intrepid, self-possessed, and, as a commander, famed for his ingenuity and dash; he was also one of the most dissolute men of his age.

Schiller, Johann Christoph Friedrich von, (1759–1805,) one of the most illustrious German poets. After having studied medicine, and become surgeon in a regiment, he, in his 22d year, wrote his tragedy of "The Robbers," which at once raised him to the foremost rank among the dramatists of his country. But some passages of a revolutionary tendency having incurred the displeasure of the duke of Würtemberg, Schiller left Stuttgard by stealth, and made his way to Mannheim, where, after various wanderings and many hardships, he got his tragedy of "Fiesco" brought out on the stage. The tragedies of "Cabal and Love" and "Don Carlos" were his next productions. In 1787 he repaired to Weimar, where he was welcomed with great warmth by Wieland and Herder. Here he made also the acquaintance of Goethe, which soon ripened into a friendship only dissolved by death. In 1789 he was appointed to a chair of history in the university of Jena, and beside lecturing to crowded audiences, he published his "History of the Thirty Years' War," and engaged in various literary enterprises, which had great influence on the literature of Germany. He

settled at Weimar, in order to direct the theatre in conjunction with Goethe, in accordance with their mutual tastes and opinions; and here he at intervals published the works which, together with those above mentioned, have immortalized his name. Among these are "Wallenstein," "Mary Stuart," "Joan of Arc," and "William Tell." There is a Life of Schiller by Thomas Carlyle.

Scipio Major, (234–183 B. C.,) Publius Cornelius Scipio Africanus Major, the conqueror of Hannibal. He is said to have saved his father's life at the battle of the Ticinus, and by his courage and decision to have prevented the desertion of the young nobles after the defeat at Cannæ. At the age of 24 he was chosen to command in Spain, and laid siege to the city of Carthago Nova, taking it the same year. During the next three years, Scipio made himself master of all Spain except the town of Gades. In 206 he returned to Rome, and was chosen consul for the next year. Sicily was given to him as his province; and having attracted by his character and success an army of volunteers, he crossed, in 204, into Africa. Hannibal was recalled to oppose him, and the second Punic war was terminated by the total defeat of Hannibal at the battle of Zama, October 19th, 202. Peace was signed the next year, and Scipio, on his return home, had the most splendid triumph which had yet been seen, and received the surname Africanus. Having accompanied his brother Lucius to the Syrian war as lieutenant in 190, they were accused of misappropriation of moneys received from Antiochus. Although the charge was not fully sustained, his popularity had waned, and he left Rome never to return, and died at his villa, at Liternum, B. C. 183, the same year in which Hannibal died. A special charm lingers around the form of that graceful hero; it is surrounded, as with a dazzling halo, by the atmosphere of serene and confident inspiration in which Scipio always moved. With quite enough of enthusiasm to warm men's hearts, and enough of calculation to follow in every case the dictates of intelligence; not naïve to share the belief of the multitude in his divine inspirations, nor straightforward enough to set it aside, and yet in secret thoroughly persuaded that he had a genuine prophetic nature; raised above the people, and not less aloof from them; a man steadfast to his word and kingly in his bearing, who thought that he should humble himself by adopting the ordinary title of a king, but who could never understand how the constitution of the republic should in his case be binding; so confident in his own greatness that he knew nothing of envy or of hatred, courteously acknowledged other men's merits, and compassionately forgave other men's faults; an excellent officer and a refined diplomatist, uniting Hellenic culture with the fullest national feeling of a Roman; an accomplished speaker, and of graceful manners—Publius Scipio won the hearts of soldiers and of women, of his countrymen and of the Spaniards, of his rivals in the senate, and of his greater Carthaginian antagonist.

Scipio Minor, (185–129 B. C.,) Publius Cornelius Scipio Æmilianus Africanus Minor, the conqueror and destroyer of Carthage. He was the son of Æmilius Paulus, and the adopted son of P. Scipio, son of Africanus the elder. In youth he had the advantage of the instructions and friendship of Polybius, who, exiled from Greece, was permitted to live in the house of Æmilius Paulus. Scipio was an industrious student of literature, and early proved himself singularly free from the common vices of sensuality and covetousness. He began his military service in Spain in 151; gained great reputation soon after in Africa, in the third Punic war; and in 148, although not of fit age, was chosen consul. The next year he went to Africa, and at once commenced the siege of Carthage, which was heroically defended. It was entered by the Romans in the spring of 146, and utterly destroyed. In 134 he was again consul, with Spain for his province, and his great achievement there was the siege and capture of Numantia. On his return to Rome he lost his popularity by his bold resistance to the proposed reforms of the Gracchi. At last, in 129, he was found dead in his bed. The history of Rome presents various men of greater genius than Scipio Minor, but none equalling him in moral purity, in the utter absence of political selfishness, in generous love for his country, and none, perhaps, to whom destiny has assigned a more tragic part. Conscious of the best intentions, and of no common abilities, he was doomed to see the ruin of his country carried out before his eyes, and to repress within him every serious attempt to save it. It was his lot to fight for his country on many a battle-field, and to return home uninjured, that he might perish there by the hand of an assassin; but in his quiet chamber he no less died for Rome than if he had fallen beneath the walls of Carthage.

Scott, Sir Walter, (1771–1832,) the great novelist. In 1802 appeared his "Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border," which, by its vivid resuscitation of the past, startled and delighted the world. "It was," says Carlyle, "a well from which flowed one of the broadest rivers; a collection of materials from which some of his best works were composed." His first original work as a poet was "The Lay of the Last Minstrel," 1805. It made him immensely popular, and was rapidly followed by "Marmion," "The Lady of the Lake," "Don Roderick," "Rokeby," "The Lord of the Isles," etc. But after a run of about ten years, these metrical romances of chivalry began to lose their magical influence, and society recognized in Byron a more potent enchanter than Scott. Meanwhile the latter had enjoyed a full tide of worldly prosperity—had been appointed, in 1806, one of the principal clerks of the court of session, had entered into a business partnership with his printers, the Ballantynes, and become owner of an estate and built a mansion at Abbotsford, on the Tweed. Resolved to adapt himself to the public taste, he discontinued writing poems, and began the long series of his prose tales, in 1814, with "Waverley." It was published anonymously, as were the rest of the series; and although they made him the widest literary reputation, and brought him immense wealth, the mystery of their authorship was kept up for years. "Guy Mannering," "The Antiquary," "The Black Dwarf," "Old Mortality," "Rob Roy," and "The Heart of Mid-Lothian," were published in swift succession before 1819, and for seven years longer his rapid pen was at work in the same field. In the commercial crisis of 1826 the bankruptcy of the publishing firm of Constable & Co. took place, which drew with it that of Ballantyne & Co. Scott's liabilities amounted to above £140,000, and the fruits of his labor and the rewards of his ambition were gone. With rare courage and a healthy pride he faced the hard fact, saw there was no remedy but one, and resolved to try that. "*Time and I,*" he said to his creditors, "*against any two!*" And he worked harder than ever, till his health broke down under the severe strain. It was during these years that his "Life of Napoleon," "Letters on Demonology," "History of Scotland," etc., were written. His debts were greatly reduced in his lifetime, and were subsequently completely discharged by the profits of his works. The same year in which bankruptcy overtook him he lost his wife, and, quitting Abbotsford, took lodgings in Edinburgh, and applied himself to his fresh task. Symptoms of paralysis appearing in 1831, he visited Italy, but his strength continued to decline, and he hastened back to his native land. He lay for a short time totally insensible, and died at Abbotsford, September 21st, 1832. His eldest daughter, Sophia, married J. G. Lockhart, who published his biography.

Scottish Succession, (1290, A. D.) (See Genealogy, II.) Alexander III., king of Scotland, died in 1286. His queen (sister of Edward I.) and all his children had gone before him. None of them had left any progeny except Margaretha, who had been married to Eric, king of Norway. Her child, the granddaughter of Alexander III., whom chroniclers call "the Maid of Norway," had thus become queen of Scotland. She died on her arrival from Norway, at Orkney, in 1290, shattering every hope that had been built upon her future union with Edward's son. The various competitors for the throne at once began a struggle for its possession, and Edward was appealed to by the bishop of St. Andrews "to come to the borders and enable the faithful men of the realm to choose him for their king, who by right ought to be so." Edward looked upon this as a favorable opportunity for uniting under one sceptre the British Isles, and demanded, therefore, that the strongholds of Scotland should be surrendered into his keeping, in order that he might deliver the kingdom to him whose right it should appear. Of thirteen, who claimed the royal crown, two only seemed to possess any solid reason in their claim. They were John Baliol of Galloway, and Robert Bruce of Annandale, both descended from David of Huntingdon, the brother of William the Lion. (See Genealogy, II.) Bruce was nearer to the royal stock; Baliol more in the direct line. On the appointed day (10th of May, 1291,) Edward commanded the attendance of all the claimants in the parish church of Norham, and demanded, as a preliminary, the recognition of his claims as lord paramount of the kingdom of Scotland. Unless these were admitted he could have no legal claim to sit in judgment on the question. The chief claimants of the Scottish crown agreed to bow to Edward's judgment as their liege lord and superior. Edward now submitted the consideration of the respective claims to 104 commissioners, 40 of whom were chosen by Baliol, 40 by Bruce, and 24 Englishmen by the king himself. After the lapse of more than a year these lords gave their decision in favor of John Baliol, the undoubted suc-

cessor to the crown, who, upon renewing his oath of fealty to England, was put in possession of the kingdom.

Scotus Erigena. For some ages, Ireland was the chief seat of learning in Christian Europe; and the most distinguished scholars who appeared in other countries were mostly either Irish by birth, or had received their education in Irish schools. We are informed by Bede that, in his day, the earlier part of the 8th century, it was customary for his English fellow-countrymen of all ranks, from the highest to the lowest, to retire for study and devotion to Ireland, where they were all hospitably received, and supplied gratuitously with food, with books, and with instruction. The glory of this age of Irish scholarship and genius is the celebrated Joannes Scotus, or Erigena, either appellative equally proclaiming his true birthplace. He is supposed to have first made his appearance in France about the year 845, and to have remained in that country till his death, which appears to have taken place before 875. Erigena's principal work is his "Dialogue on the Division of Nature," which is remarkable for its Aristotelian acuteness and extensive information. In one place he gives concise and able definitions of the seven liberal arts, and expresses his opinion on the composition of things. In another part he inserts a very elaborate discussion on arithmetic. He also details a curious conversation on the elements of things, on the motions of the heavenly bodies, and other topics of astronomy and physiology. The subtle speculations of Erigena have strongly attracted the notice of the most eminent among the modern inquirers into the history of opinion and civilization, and they attribute to them a very extraordinary influence on the philosophy of his own and of succeeding times.

Seneca, Lucius Annæus, Roman philosopher, and tutor to the emperor Nero, was the son of M. Annæus Seneca, an eminent rhetorician, and was born at Corduba, in Spain, about the beginning of the Christian era. How far the philosopher strove to correct the vices of the emperor, or whether he did not rather wink at or even pander to them, cannot perhaps be ascertained. But the philosopher grew immensely rich, had a palace sumptuously furnished at Rome, country-seats and splendid gardens, and an enormous amount of ready money. After long profiting by the favor of Agrippina, he took her son's part against her; probably sanctioning, tacitly, if not expressly, her murder by her son; and wrote Nero's letter of justification to the senate. He soon after lost the favor of the emperor, who coveted his money; and by the emperor's permission, he quitted Rome for the country. In A. D. 65, Seneca was accused of taking part in the conspiracy of Piso, his intimate friend, and was ordered to put himself to death. He opened a vein in each arm, then in his legs, but the blood flowed very slowly; a dose of hemlock had no effect; and at last his tortures, which he bore with stoical fortitude, were ended by suffocation in a warm bath. His writings were very numerous, and many are still extant; among them are treatises "De Ira," "De Consolatione," 124 Letters to Lucilius, 10 tragedies, and a remarkable work entitled "Quæstionum Naturalium, Lib. VII." Seneca attached himself chiefly to the Stoic school, but adopted also some principles from other systems. His works abound in quotable maxims and sentiments, his language is lucid and vigorous, but he is over-fond of antithesis. His style, like his conduct at his death, had a theatrical affectation about it. His works have been very much read, and very frequently republished.

Sennaherib, (B. C. 700.) The reign of Sennaherib, the son of the usurper Sargon, is at once the most interesting, in an historical point of view, of all in the Assyrian annals, and that at which the empire reached the highest pitch of prosperity. It included the whole of Western Asia, from the river Halys and the Mediterranean, to the desert of Iran, and from the Caspian sea and the mountains of Armenia, to Arabia and the Persian gulf. He restored Nineveh to its position as the royal residence, rebuilt the city and its palaces, by the labor of hosts of captives, and with materials contributed by all the subject kings and states; and added a palace exceeding in size and magnificence all that had been erected by former kings. It was amidst the ruins of this edifice that Mr. Layard made the most important of his discoveries; and in the sculptures that lined its walls we see the life of Assyria when it was most flourishing. A second palace built by Sennaherib is buried beneath the mound by the name of which (Nebbi-Yanus, Prophet Jonah,) tradition bears her witness to Jonah's mission to the Ninevites. In the third year of his reign, the king crossed the Euphrates and quickly subdued the whole country. His successes provoked the resistance of the king of Egypt. This seemed an excellent opportunity for Hezekiah, the king of Judah, to shake off the Assyrian yoke. But when Sennaherib had taken Ashdod, the key of the military route to Egypt, he turned his

arms against rebellious Judah, and it was from before Lachish that he sent the summons to which Isaiah replied by the prophecy of his destruction. At this crisis he was called away by the advance of the Egyptian army, and it seems to have been in his camp near Pelusium that his army was swept down by the very miracle that Isaiah had predicted.

Septimus Severus, (146–211,) Roman Emperor, was born at Leptis, in Africa, and was raised to the throne on the death of Pertinax, 193. He had to contend with several rivals: first, Didius Julianus, whom he put to death; then Pescennius Niger, whom he defeated at Issus; and at a later period, Albinus, whom he defeated near Lyons, in 197. Severus had in the preceding year taken Byzantium, after two years' siege. He carried on a successful war in the East, and in 208 visited Britain, made war on the Caledonians, and built the great wall across the north of England, from the Solway to the Tyne. As a monarch he was cruel; and it has been said that he never performed an act of humanity or forgave a fault. He was a man of letters, and composed a history of his own reign.

Sertorius, Quintus, (B. C. 72,) a distinguished Roman general. He served under Marius in the Cimbric war, afterward in Spain, and was made quæstor, B. C. 91. Appointed prætor in 83, he went soon after to Spain, where his courage and skill as a soldier were well known. He had, however, to retire before the forces of Sulla, and went to Africa; but, on the invitation of the Lusitanians, returned and put himself at their head to fight for independence. His progress was rapid: he made himself master of a great part of Spain, established a senate, founded a school at Osca for the education of young Spaniards in Greek and Roman learning, and, to increase the superstitious reverence of the people for his person, gave out that he had communications with the gods through the white fawn which always accompanied him. Metellus Pius was sent against him in 79, but could effect nothing; two years later, Pompey joined Metellus; but Sertorius, re-enforced by Perperna, held out against both till 72. He entered into negotiations with Mithridates, which caused fresh alarm at Rome. But his influence and popularity were shaken by his despotic acts, and especially by the massacre of all the scholars at Osca; and he was assassinated by Perperna, his ally, at a banquet, B. C. 72. So ended one of the greatest men that Rome had hitherto produced — a man who, under more fortunate circumstances, would perhaps have become the regenerator of his country — by the treason of the wretched band of emigrants whom he was condemned to lead against his native land.

Sesostris, or rather **Sesortasen**, is shown, by the remains of temples he founded, to have ruled the whole of Egypt, from the Delta to the second cataract. An obelisk of his still stands at Heliopolis. He extended his conquests into Ethiopia. His memory was held in such honor as to cause fresh temples to be reared to his memory many centuries after his death. Undoubtedly there were in the first extracts from Manetho some words of praise following his royal name, as there were after several others; and this circumstance, joined to the similarity of names, induced the chronologists to place the Sesostris of the Greeks just there. He is, however, not the Sesostris spoken of by Herodotus. This Sesortasen was indeed a king who was victorious on the frontiers, but his armies had never penetrated into Asia. The Sesostris of Herodotus is the famous Rameses Mei Amoun. (See this.)

Sforza, Ludovico, (1451–1510,) the last Duke of Milan, and the immediate cause of the invasion of Italy by the French. The succession of Naples was again to involve Italy in war. The pretensions of the house of Anjou had descended to the count of Maine, by whose testament they became vested in the crown of France. (See Genealogy, VIII.) Louis XI., however, gave himself no trouble about Naples. But his son and successor, Charles VIII., was anxious to visit the sunny south. At that time the central parts of Lombardy were held by Ludovico Sforza, who had usurped the duchy of Milan. A revolution would be the probable result of this usurpation. In these circumstances, Sforza excited the king of France to undertake the conquest of Naples. In relieving himself from an immediate danger, Sforza overlooked the consideration that the heir of the king of France claimed that duchy of Milan which he was compassing by usurpation and murder. It was in the month of August, 1494, that the French army began to pass over the Alps, and, after marching across Lombardy, arrived upon the territory of Florence. No resistance was made, Charles VIII. entered Rome almost without drawing a sword, and, on the 22d of February, 1495, made his solemn entry into Naples. Alarmed at the rapid conquest of the French, he joined the league of the Pope, the emperor, the

king of Spain, and the princes of Italy, against Charles, who, however, succeeded in fighting his way back to France. In 1499 the French returned to Italy, under Louis XII., and conquered the whole of the Milanese territory, of which he took possession as heir of his grandmother, Valentina Visconti. Ludovico succeeded in re-entering Milan in the following year, but was besieged in Novara and betrayed to the French, who carried him with other princes of his house to France; and he passed the rest of his life as a prisoner at the castle of Loches. His surname, the Moor, was given him, either because of his swarthy color, or in allusion to his device, the mulberry-tree — in Italian, *El Moro.*

Shakspeare, William, (1564–1616.) Of the life of this chief of poets we know almost nothing with any certainty. It is certain that in his youth he went toLondon, and lived there many years, leaving his wife and children at Stratford; that he gained an honorable position as actor, play-writer, and shareholder in the Blackfriars and afterward in the Globe Theatre; enjoyed the favor and patronage of Queen Elizabeth, James I., and the earl of Southampton, the warm friendship of Ben Jonson, and the highest respect and admiration of his associates, not only for his pre-eminence as a poet, but for his honesty, geniality, and worth as a man. The first collected edition of Shakspeare's plays was the folio of 1623. The works of Shakspeare have become to a large part of the world one of the primal necessities of life. In no other man's books, probably, is to be found so much truth, wisdom, and beauty. Great to all men, he is greatest to the great, and the homage of the highest intellects of the world is silently or with eloquent speech yielded to him. The myriad-minded man, the greatest intellect who in our recorded world has left record of himself in the way of literature, the poet of the human race, the melodious priest of a true catholicism — such are some of the phrases in which other great men have striven to express their sense of his superiority. Ben Jonson, Milton, Dryden, Pope, and, in our own day, Coleridge, De Quincy, Carlyle, and Emerson have led the chorus of his praise. The revolution which his genius wrought upon the English drama is placed in the clearest light by comparing his earliest plays with the best which the language possessed before his time. He has made all his predecessors obsolete. While his "Merchant of Venice," and his "Midsummer Night's Dream," and his "Romeo and Juliet," and his "King John," and his "Richard II.," and his "Henry IV.," and his "Richard III.," all certainly produced before 1598, are still the most universally familiar compositions in English literature, no other dramatic work that had then been written is now popularly read or familiar to anybody, except to a few professed investigators of the antiquities of our poetry. But Shakspeare is not merely a dramatist. Apart altogether from his dramatic power, he is the greatest poet that ever lived. His sympathy is the most universal, his imagination the most plastic, his diction the most expressive ever given to any writer. His poetry has in itself the power and varied excellences of all other poetry. While in grandeur, and beauty, and passion, and sweetest music, and all the other higher gifts of song, he may be ranked with the greatest — with Spenser, and Chaucer, and Milton, and Dante, and Homer — he is at the same time more nervous than Dryden, and more sententious than Pope. In whose handling was language ever such a flame of fire as it is in his? His wonderful potency in the use of this instrument would alone set him above all other writers.

Shapoor, the great King of Persia, and bitter enemy of the Byzantine empire. His martial character showed itself first in his invasion of Yemen, about 326. After the death of the emperor Constantine, he began the war with the Romans, which was carried on through almost his whole reign, against Constantius II., Julian, and Jovian. Nine great battles were fought, in two of which Constantius commanded in person, the Romans usually being defeated. In 363 he attempted to avert by negotiation the threatened invasion of his dominions by Julian, but his overtures were despised, and Julian advanced to Antioch, passed the Euphrates and the Tigris, took several towns, burnt his own fleet, and soon after commenced his retreat. Shapoor pursued and harassed the Romans, and, in a battle fought soon after, Julian was killed. A treaty of peace was made with Jovian, and Shapoor obtained the five provinces beyond the Tigris.

Smalcaldian War. See Appendix, page 200.

Sobieski, John, (1629–1696,) King of Poland, one of the greatest warriors of his age. John distinguished himself very greatly in the continual wars with Cossacks and Tartars, Swedes, Russians, and Turks, and attained the

dignity of grand-marshal of Poland. One of his most memorable exploits was the grand victory won in 1667 over the combined Cossack and Tartar hosts, in a battle or series of battles which lasted seventeen days. He had only 20,000 men to oppose to 100,000, and with them he saved Poland from destruction. Sobieski was elected king of Poland, as John III., in 1674, and had the arduous task of raising the country from a state of extreme depression and embarrassment. The emperor Leopold, in dread of the Turks, sought in 1682 the aid of all the Christian powers, among them that of Poland; but Sobieski, whose title Leopold had refused to acknowledge, in turn refused to make an alliance with him. In the following year, however, he did so, and Vienna being besieged by 200,000 Turks under the grand-vizier Kara Mustapha, and the imperial family having fled, Sobieski hastened to relieve the city with 200,000 men; and came in sight of the besieging host on the 11th of September. The next day he totally defeated them, and became master of their camp, artillery, and immense treasure. The victory filled trembling Europe with joy, and immortalized Sobieski. His last years were saddened by the failure of all his attempts to introduce reforms into the government. The nobles invariably opposed their constitutional anarchic "veto," and the patriot king confessed himself powerless to save his country.

Social War in Greece. See Appendix, page 225.

Socrates, (B. C. 468–399,) the great Athenian philosopher. He was one of the disciples of Anaxagoras, and soon gave himself up entirely to philosophy. He led an active social life, married, served his country as a soldier, distinguishing himself by his courage and extraordinary endurance at the siege of Potidæa and at the battle of Delium. At Potidæa he saved the life of his pupil Xenophon. He appears to have scarcely ever held any political office, and seems to have inclined rather to the aristocratic than to the democratic party. But it was as a teacher that Socrates made himself the foremost man of Athens, and perhaps of the ancient world. He wrote no book, he did not establish a school, nor constitute a system of philosophy. But he almost lived abroad, and mixed with men familiarly; and in the street or any place of public resort, where listeners gathered around him, he talked, and questioned, and discussed, not for pay, but from the love of truth, and a sense of duty. He was persuaded that he had a high religious mission to fulfil, and that a divine voice habitually interfered to restrain him from certain actions. Instead of encouraging profitless speculations upon nature, he turned the thoughts of men to themselves, their actions, and their duties. Yet even on these things he did not dogmatize: instead of asserting and imparting, he questioned and suggested, showed and led the way to real knowledge. He ruthlessly compelled ignorance and pretence to own themselves, and thus drew on himself the hatred of many. He was attacked by Aristophanes, in his comedy of the "Clouds," as the arch-sophist, the enemy of religion, and corrupter of youth; substantially the same charges as those on which he was prosecuted twenty years later. He was charged with not believing in the gods which the state worshipped; with introducing new divinities, and with corrupting the youth. Death was proposed as the penalty. He was condemned by a majority of six only; but his speech in mitigation of the sentence raised the majority against him to eighty. Thirty days elapsed between his sentence and its execution, in pursuance of the law that no criminal must be put to death during the voyage of the sacred ship to Delos. During that period Socrates had the society of his friends, and conversed with them as usual; the last conversation being on the immortality of the soul. He refused the offer of some of his friends to procure means of escape for him; drank the hemlock cup with perfect composure, and so died, in the 70th year of his age. Socrates opened a new era in philosophy, and without founding a system, he originated, by rousing men to reflection and leading them toward self-knowledge, a vast movement of intellect, which produced, first Platonism and the Aristotelian logic, and then all the systems, even conflicting ones, which rose into more or less importance during ten successive centuries. Our primary authorities for the life and teaching of this extraordinary man are Xenophon's Memorabilia and Apology of Socrates, and Plato's Dialogues, in which he forms the great central figure. (See Grote's admirable account of him in his History of Greece.)

Solway Moss, (1542 A. D.) Toward the close of this year a war broke out between England and Scotland. James V., king of Scots, was under the influence of the Catholic party, and encouraged his subjects to make depredations upon the English border. Henry VIII. hereupon proclaimed war against James, and the duke of Norfolk plundered the

Scottish border. James sent an army of 10,000 men into Cumberland to revenge this insult; but they were without organization, and being suddenly attacked by a small body of English not exceeding 500 men, a shout was raised that the duke of Norfolk was upon them with the army of the Tweed. A moment's thought would have shown them that Norfolk could not be within 30 miles of Carlisle; but his name caused a panic. Few or none in the whole multitude knew the ground, and 10,000 men went blundering like sheep, in the darkness, back upon the border. But here a fresh difficulty arose. The tide was flowing up the Solway. They had lost the route by which they had advanced in the morning, and had strayed toward the sea. Some flung away their arms and struggled over the water; some were drowned; the main body wandered at last into Solway Moss, a morass between Gretna and the Esk, where the whole army were either killed or made prisoners. The king of Scots, hearing of this disaster, abandoned himself wholly to despair, and died three weeks afterward (December, 1542,) in the flower of his age, leaving the crown to an infant of a few days, Mary, queen of Scots.

Sophocles. The three great tragic poets of Athens were singularly connected together by the battle of Salamis. Æschylus, in the heroic vigor of his life, fought there; Euripides was born in Salamis on the day of the battle, and Sophocles, a blooming boy of 16, danced to the choral song of Simonides, in which the victory was celebrated. Sophocles carries this rhythmical movement, in which he first appears to us, through his whole life. Elegance, proportion, finished art are the characteristics of the man and the poet, but within these limits he shows an orderly force and even sublimity of genius. He holds the highest rank as a dramatic artist, though perhaps in original power a little inferior to Æschylus. The greatest of the works of Sophocles are the three plays on the fates of the house of Œdipus. They embody his powerful conception of destiny. In the first (Œdipus Tyrannus) the plot is the most artfully contrived of all the Greek tragedies; events following one another with breathless rapidity, and leading to the inevitable catastrophe, which cast Œdipus down from his knightly state, an unconscious and self-convicted parricide. The second (Œdipus Coloneus) ends with the mournful and mysterious death of the dethroned, blind, and wretched Œdipus, who hath sought the grove and shrine of the Eumenides, to die within its hallowed precincts, unseen by mortal eye, and thus to bring about the great solution of destiny by death. The third (Antigone) carries on the tragic story of the house, the civil war between the sons of Œdipus, their mutual slaughter, and the punishment of Antigone for burying the corpse of her brother Polynices, against the prohibition of Creon, who has succeeded to the throne. And here occurs the memorable collision between a sacred duty founded on natural instincts and hallowed by antique usage, with the presumed binding sanction of the law of God written on the heart, on the one side, and the edicts of power on the other. Both are pushed to extremes, and double destruction is the consequence. This character of Antigone is the gem of the Athenian stage.

Spanish Armada, (1588.) Philip II., king of Spain, whose sailors had lately beaten the Turks at Lepanto, whose soldiers had still more recently conquered Portugal, who owned, besides his dominions in Europe, the golden soil of the Americas and some of the richest islands in African and Asian seas, resolved, during the reign of Elizabeth, upon the invasion of England. For this resolve he had, among others, three especial reasons: the execution of Mary, queen of Scots, against his remonstrances; the support given by Elizabeth to the insurgents in the Netherlands and in France; and the plundering of his ships and colonies by English pirates. In the summer of 1588, 132 vessels rode at anchor in the Tagus, prepared for the destruction of the English throne. This fleet, known as the Invincible Armada, was to be joined off the coast of Holland by the duke of Parma, with thirty-five thousand troops. Every effort was made for the defence of England. Elizabeth acted with a courage worthy of the most heroic of her predecessors. The English fleet was placed under the command of Lord Howard of Effingham, while under him served Drake, Hawkins, and Fróbisher. Storms delayed the Spanish armament, and, on its arrival in the channel, a succession of able attacks on the part of the English prevented its junction with the troops of the duke of Parma. The decisive attack was made by fire-ships in Calais roads, (28th of July, 1588.) Weakened by the loss of several vessels, the Spanish admiral resolved to return homeward. As the channel was in the possession of the English, the armada sailed round the north of Scotland. When near the Orkneys, it encountered severe storms, and so many of the vessels were disabled or wrecked

on the coasts of Ireland, Scotland, and the adjacent islands, that scarcely one-half of the fleet returned to the shores of Spain.

Spanish Succession War. (See Genealogy, IX.) The expected death of Charles II., (son of Philip IV.,) who was childless, had led to questions as to the succession to his dominions, which threatened to disturb the peace of Europe. Among the claimants for the succession, the principal were the dauphin of France, son of Maria Theresa, eldest daughter of Philip IV.; the electoral prince of Bavaria, grandson of Margaret Theresa, second daughter of Philip IV.; and the archduke Charles of Austria, whose right was by his grandmother, daughter of Philip III. This prince, who was also a descendant in the direct male line from Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, had been named heir by Philip IV. The conditions of the arrangement concluded between William III. and Louis XIV., known as the *First Partition Treaty*, were that Naples and Sicily should be assigned to the dauphin, that the archduke Charles should succeed to Milan, and that the electoral prince should inherit the crown of Spain, the Netherlands, and the Indies. The death of the young elector, however, frustrated this arrangement, and led to the conclusion of the *Second Partition Treaty*, by which it was agreed that the archduke Charles should succeed to Spain, the Netherlands, and the Indies, and the dauphin to the Italian states, including Milan. The knowledge of these arrangements induced Charles to bequeath his dominions, undivided, to Philip, the younger son of the dauphin. The confederacy concluded by William with the emperor Leopold, known as the *Grand Alliance*, had been formed with the object of defeating this arrangement, and of preventing the union of the French and Spanish monarchies. It was left, however, for the successor of William, by the aid of the military genius of Marlborough, to carry out the object of the confederates. (See Appendix, page 205.)

Spenser, Edmund, (1553–1599,) one of the most illustrious English poets. In 1580 he accompanied Lord Grey de Wilton, viceroy of Ireland, as his secretary, and procured a grant of 3,028 acres in the county of Cork, out of the forfeited lands of the earl of Desmond; on which, however, by the terms of the gift, he was obliged to become resident. He accordingly fixed his residence at Kilcolman, in the county of Cork, and was there visited by Sir Walter Raleigh, who became his patron after the death of Sir Philip Sidney, and whom he celebrates under the title of the "Shepherd of the Ocean." Sir Walter persuaded him to write the "Faerie Queen," the first part of which was printed in 1590, and presented to Queen Elizabeth. In 1591, Spenser published the second part of the "Faerie Queen;" but the poem, according to the original plan, was never completed. About this time Spenser presented to the queen his "View of the State of Ireland," being then clerk of the council of the province of Munster. This interesting and masterly work was not printed till 1633. Spenser is one of the most purely poetic of all poets. Yet, as it is with Milton, so it is with him: his name is spoken with a proud admiration, and his "Faerie Queen" is not read. Some, like Hume, find it more a task than a pleasure to read this poem. Others, like Pope, find it charming in old age as well as in youth. Milton, in his "Areopagitica," speaks of "our sage and serious poet, Spenser, whom I dare be known to think a better teacher than Scotus or Aquinas." And an eminent modern critic asserts that "the shaping spirit of imagination was never possessed in the like degree by any other writer; nor has any other evinced a deeper feeling of all forms of the beautiful; nor have words ever been made by any other to embody thought with more wonderful art." His verse is exquisitely melodious, and the moral tone of his poetry is of the noblest and purest.

Spinola, Ambrose, (1569–1630,) a celebrated Spanish general. At the age of 30 he entered the service of Philip III., taking command of a body of troops which he had raised and undertook to pay. He first served in Flanders, and in 1604 he took Ostend, after a siege of three years, for which he was made commander-in-chief of all the Spanish troops in the Low Countries, where he was opposed by Maurice of Nassau. During a cessation of operations, Spinola went to Paris, and in an interview with Henry IV., the king asked him what were his plans for the ensuing campaign. The general, without hesitation, entered into a detail of his projects, and Henry communicated to Maurice the direct contrary, as he could not believe that Spinola had revealed to him his real intentions. Finding, however, that the Spaniard was as good as his word, he exclaimed, "Others deceive by telling falsehoods, but this man by speaking the truth." He was subsequently employed in Italy, where he made himself master of the city of Casale; but not being able to subdue the citadel, owing to im-

prudent orders sent him from Madrid, he exclaimed, "They have robbed me of my honor," and fell a prey to chagrin, in 1630.

St. Ambrose, Bishop of Milan, (340–397.) While yet a youth he pleaded causes with so much eloquence, that Probus, prefect of Italy, chose him one of his council, and afterward nominated him governor of Liguria, which office he held five years. In 374, Auxentius, bishop of Milan, died; and so fierce was the contest in the election of a successor to the vacant see, that the governor was called upon to quell the tumult. This he attempted by persuasion in the great church; and at the conclusion of his address, a voice in the crowd exclaimed, "Ambrose is bishop." This circumstance was considered as a divine direction, and Ambrose was declared to be the object, not only of the popular choice, but of divine selection. His first efforts were directed to the extermination of Arianism, which was then making great progress. He also successfully resisted the pagans, who were attempting to restore their ancient worship. When Maximinus invaded Italy, and actually entered Milan, Ambrose remained at his post, to assuage the calamities produced by the invading army. When, in consequence of a tumult at Thessalonica, Theodosius sent an order for a general massacre, Ambrose went to the emperor, remonstrated with him on his barbarity, and prevailed on him to promise that the command should be revoked. The mandate was, however, carried into execution, and 700 persons were slaughtered in cold blood. Shortly afterward, when Theodosius was about to enter the great church of Milan, Ambrose met him at the porch, and sternly forbade him to appear in the holy place. The emperor pleaded the example of David: "You have imitated David in his crime, imitate him in his repentance," was the reply; and Theodosius was excluded from the service of the church for eight months, and then was compelled, not only to perform penance, but to sign an edict which ordained that an interval of thirty days should pass before any sentence of death or of confiscation should be executed.

St. Anschar, (850 A. D.,) the Apostle of Scandinavia. From the earliest times Christianity had made some efforts to reach those northern regions from which issued forth the terrible pagans. A providential event opened Denmark to her exertions. A contested succession to the throne of that kingdom had driven one of the princes, Harold, to the court and to the protection of Lewis the Pious. That prince embraced the faith of Christ, not only as the price of succor in the contest for his throne, but in zeal and sincerity. The return of Harold to Denmark seemed to the Danish prince and to the pious emperor too favorable an opportunity to be neglected for the promulgation of the Gospel in that heathen kingdom. A zealous and devoted missionary was invited to undertake the perilous adventure. This was Anschar, a pious monk. He stayed in Denmark two years without much success. But whatever was his success in Denmark, the more remote regions of the north suddenly opened on the zealous missionary. An embassy from Sweden announced that many of that nation were prepared to accept Christianity. Anschar did not hesitate at once to proceed to this more distant and unknown scene of labor. In the mean time the archbishopric of Hamburg had been founded: Anschar was raised to the see, and invested with metropolitan power over all the northern missions. But the Northmen had learned no respect for Christianity. They surprised Hamburg. The town was burned, and Anschar hardly escaped with his life. He returned however again to his see, and even went again to Sweden, where, thanks to his labors, Christianity was finally admitted as a tolerated religion. The final conversion of the kingdom, however, was not achieved till above a century and a half later.

St. Athanasius, (296–373,) Bishop of Alexandria, and one of the most celebrated doctors of the Church. He spent some time with St. Anthony in the desert, took a leading part at the council of Nice, defending the orthodox dogma, and combating Arius with great zeal and acuteness, and was chosen bishop in 326. For nearly half a century he sustained with unshaken fidelity, through all changes of outward fortune, the part he had chosen of champion of the Catholic doctrine. Condemned by councils, thrice exiled, alternately supported and persecuted by the emperors, a wanderer at Rome, at Milan, in Gaul, and in the Egyptian desert, he remained true to himself, exercised an almost unparalleled influence, and spent the last ten years of his life at Alexandria, where he died. His works fill three volumes folio. There is no ground for attributing the Athanasian creed to this eminent bishop.

St. Augustine, (354–430,) Bishop of Hippo, the greatest of the Fathers of the Latin Church. Augustine took an active part in the Church contro-

versies of his age. His influence over the Western church was immense and lasting; he completed what Athanasius began, and, by his earnestness and logical clearness, determined the form of the Catholic doctrine. His works are very numerous, but the best known are his "Confessions," and the "City of God." The writings of this father were the special study of both John Wickliffe and Martin Luther.

St. Augustine, or Austin, (?-605,) styled the Apostle of the English, was sent by Pope Gregory I. with a few monks to preach the Gospel in England. He landed in 597; and so rapid was his success, that in 602 the Pope made him archbishop of Canterbury. Elated by the success of his mission, he endeavored to bring the Welsh bishops, who were descendants of the British converts of the second century, under the jurisdiction of the Church; but they asserted their independence, and 1,200 monks of Bangor were soon after put to the sword.

St. Bartholomew, (1572 A. D.,) the Massacre of the Protestants. The event bearing this name was an expression of the feelings with which Protestantism was regarded in France in the first age after the Reformation. After the death of her husband, Henry II., Catherine de' Medicis had an incessant struggle during the reigns of the boy-kings, her sons, for the supreme power. It seemed within her grasp but for the influence which the Protestant leader, the Admiral Coligni, had acquired over the mind of Charles IX., who, during the absence of Catherine, had listened to Coligni, and agreed to an expedition against the Spaniards, (that was, against Catholicism.) From this moment the death of the Protestant leader was determined upon. The opportunity of the marriage between Henry of Navarre (Henry IV.) and the king's sister Margaret was seized upon. This marriage was hailed by the Protestants with delight. They considered it as a pledge of future concord. But on the 22d of August, Coligni was shot at from a window; his party were highly indignant at this outrage, and threats of vengeance were heard: these were used by the king's relatives to convince him that he and all about him were in danger of immediate destruction, if he did not permit a general massacre. The order was given. The house where Coligni lay wounded was first attacked, and all its inmates murdered. All the streets in Paris rang with the dreadful cry, "Death to the Huguenot." About 30,000 persons were butchered. All that day (August 24th) it continued. The large cities of the provinces, Rouen, Lyons, etc., caught the infection, which the queen-mother took no steps to prevent, and France was steeped in blood and mourning.

St. Benedict, (480-543,) the founder of the Benedictine Order, was born at Nursia, in the duchy of Spoleto. Of a wealthy and pious family, he was sent to pursue his studies at Rome; but, dissatisfied with the sterile instruction, and shrinking with religious horror from the vices of the city, he quitted it, and retired to an inaccessible cavern. The monk Romanus alone visited and supplied him with food. Temptation assailed him in the most perilous shapes, but he triumphed over it. His hiding-place was discovered, and he was induced to become abbot of a neighboring monastery, from which, however, he soon withdrew. His fame had spread, and many were attracted to his retreat; and in a short time twelve fraternities were settled amidst the romantic scenery of Subiaco. At length, by the malice and persecution of a priest, Florentius, Benedict was driven from Subiaco, and established himself on Monte Casino. The old temple of Apollo and its grove were destroyed, and in their place arose the famous Benedictine monastery, the centre of the system which rapidly spread over the west of Europe. The whole life of Benedict was adorned with acts of fervent piety, and the deep impression which he produced on the world was mainly owing to the completeness with which he personally embodied and set forth the highest religious ideal of the age. In his later years he had a memorable interview with Totila, king of the Ostrogoths, who sought his counsel as an oracle.

St. Bernard, (1091-1153,) Abbot of Clairvaux, was born of a noble family in Burgundy. He was carefully trained by pious parents, and sent to study at the university of Paris. At the age of 23 he entered the then recently founded monastery of Citeaux, accompanied by his brothers and above twenty of his companions. He observed the strictest rules of the order, and so distinguished himself by his ability and acquirements that he was chosen to lead the colony to Clairvaux, and was made abbot of the new house; an office which he filled till his death. His fame attracted a great number of novices, many of whom became eminent men. Among them were Pope Eugenius III., six cardinals, and many bishops. In 1128 he prepared the statutes for the order of Knights Templars. Popes and

princes desired his support, and submitted their differences to his arbitration. He was the chief promoter of the second crusade. At the council of Vezelai, in 1146, he spoke as if inspired, before the king and the nobles of France, and with his own hand gave them their crosses. He then preached the crusade in Germany, persuaded the Emperor Conrad to join it, and refused the command which was offered him. His prediction of success was falsified. Bernard was the vehement adversary of Arnold of Brescia, and of Abelard. He steadily refused the offers of several archbishoprics and other dignities, preferring to remain abbot only. His character and his writings have earned him the title of last of the fathers. The power and tenderness and simplicity that characterizes his sermons and other works have secured him the admiration of Protestants and Catholics alike. Dante introduces him in the last cantos of the "Paradise" with profound reverence and admiring love; and Luther studied his writings with the same feelings. The best English biography of St. Bernard is written by J. C. Morrison.

St. Boniface, (680–755 A. D.,) the Apostle of Germany, was born in England. He became a monk, but under the sanction of Pope Gregory II. he went about 716 to Germany, and there devoted himself for the rest of his life to the task of Christianizing the uncivilized tribes; not without great success. He founded churches, schools, and monasteries, and reclaimed vast tracts of waste, and brought them under cultivation. He was massacred with a band of his converts by the barbarians, in 755.

St. Chrysostome, John, (347–407 A. D.,) Patriarch of Constantinople, was called *Chrysostome,* which signifies "golden mouth," on account of his eloquence. He was born at Antioch about the middle of the 4th century, and was intended for the bar; but being deeply impressed with religious feelings, he spent several years in solitary retirement, studying and meditating with a view to the Church. Having completed his voluntary probation, he returned to Antioch, was ordained, and became so celebrated for the eloquence of his preaching, that on the death of Nectarius, patriarch of Constantinople, he was raised to that high and important post. He exerted himself so zealously in repressing heresy, paganism, and immorality, and in enforcing the obligations of monachism, that Theophilus, bishop of Alexandria, aided and encouraged by the empress Eudoxia, caused him to be deposed at a synod held at Chalcedon in 403. His deposition gave so much offence to the people, by whom he was greatly beloved, that the empress was obliged to interfere for his reinstatement. He soon, however, provoked her anger by opposing the erection of her statue near the great church; and, in 404, another synod deposed him, and exiled him to Armenia. He sustained his troubles with admirable courage; but being ordered to a still greater distance from the capital, where his enemies feared his influence, he died while on the journey. His voluminous works, consisting of sermons, commentaries, treatises, etc., abound with information as to the manners and characteristics of his age. Thirty years after his death his remains were removed to Constantinople with great pomp, and he was honored with the title of saint.

St. Ignatius. See Loyola.

St. Jerome, one of the Fathers of the Church. He was a native of Dacia, who in 382 visited Rome, and was made secretary to Pope Damasus; but three years afterward he returned to the East, accompanied by several female devotees, who wished to lead an ascetic life in the Holy Land. Jerome was one of the most learned of the fathers, and took a leading part in the religious controversies of his age. His writings are very numerous, the most important being his Commentaries on various parts of the Bible. The Church owes to him the Latin translation of the Bible well known under the name of the Vulgate. His style is singularly pure and classical. He died in 420, superintendent of a monastery, at Bethlehem. At the death of Jerome, Latin Christianity had produced three of her great fathers — the founders of her doctrinal and disciplinarian system — Jerome, Ambrose, Augustine; Jerome, if not the father, the faithful and zealous guardian of her young monasticism, Ambrose of her sacerdotal authority, Augustine of her theology.

St. Louis. See Louis IX.

St. Polycarp, one of the Apostolical Fathers of the Church, and a Christian martyr, who was a disciple of the apostle John, and by him appointed bishop of Smyrna. He made many converts, enjoyed the friendship of Ignatius, and opposed the heresies of Marcion and Valentinus; and during the persecution of the Christians under Marcus Aurelius, he suffered mar-

tyrdom with the most heroic fortitude, A. D. 166. His short "Epistle to the Philippians" is the only one of his writings that has been preserved.

St. Thomas à Becket. See BECKET.

Steele. See ADDISON.

Stein, (1757–1831,) a distinguished Prussian statesman. His great abilities having become known, he was, in 1786, appointed to the important situation of president of all the Westphalian chambers, in which office he labored assiduously till 1804. In that year he was made minister of finance and trade, in which he remained till 1806, when he resigned and retired to his estates at Nassau. The king, however, recalled him soon after the peace of Tilsit, and it was then that he planned and executed those great yet cautious social reforms which laid the foundations of the restored monarchy. Ere long his patriotic spirit and great abilities excited the jealousy of Napoleon, who had him exiled. On the approach of the French emperor to Dresden, on the eve of the Moscow campaign, he went to St. Petersburg, where his firmness and energy were of great service in supporting the emperor Alexander through that crisis. After the occupation of Saxony by the allied forces, he was placed at the head of the central administration, and put forth all his energies in keeping alive the patriotic enthusiasm which displayed itself on all sides. But the principles proclaimed at the first Peace of Paris did not meet his views for the political organization of the German people, and he withdrew in disappointment to his estate.

Strabo, a celebrated Greek historian and geographer, was born at Amasia, in Cappadocia, about B. C. 50, and travelled through Greece, Italy, Egypt, and Asia, endeavoring to obtain the most accurate information in regard to the geography, statistics, and political condition of the countries which he visited. The time of his death is unknown, but he is supposed to have died after A. D. 20. His great work, in seventeen books, contains not only a description of different countries, but the chief particulars of their history, notices of eminent men, and accounts of the manners and customs of the people. It contains nearly the whole history of knowledge from the time of Homer to that of Augustus. There is an English translation by Hamilton in Bohn's Classical Library.

Struensee, John Frederick, (1737–1772,) first minister of Christian VII. of Denmark. He was brought up to medicine, and became in 1768 physician to the king of Denmark, whom he accompanied on his tour to Germany, France, and England. Soon after the marriage of Christian with the princess Caroline Matilda of England, Struensee became a favorite of the young queen, and, through her, finally prime-minister. Taking advantage of the imbecility of the monarch, he gradually came to direct the whole affairs of government. He endeavored to introduce reforms in the law and the administration, most of which were ignorantly and violently opposed. His monopoly of power at length aroused the jealousy of the principal nobility, who, aided by the young queen's mortal enemy, the queen dowager, entered into a conspiracy to destroy him and his party, which they effected in the following manner: A scandalous charge was made against Queen Caroline Matilda, that she cherished a guilty passion for the hated minister; and on the night of the 16th of January, 1772, the conspirators suddenly aroused the king in his bed, and, making him believe that his life was in danger, obtained his order for arresting the queen, Struensee, and all their adherents. The result was that they were tried and convicted as traitors on the most preposterous charges. Struensee made a cowardly confession. The queen, too, confessed her guilt, but it is difficult to admit the truth of it. Struensee was beheaded and quartered; and the queen, who was confined in the castle of Cronenburg, would have probably shared a similar fate, had not a British fleet appeared in the Baltic, and conveyed her to Zell, where she died in 1776.

Stuart, Mary, (1542–1587), Queen of Scots, famous for her beauty and wit, her crimes and her fate, was daughter of James V., king of Scotland, succeeded her father in 1542, eight days after her birth, and, before she was six years old, was sent to the court of France. In 1558 she married Francis, then dauphin, and, in the next year, king of France. On his death in 1560 she returned to Scotland. After rejecting several proposals of marriage, she married her cousin, Henry Stuart, Lord Darnley, in 1565. Darnley being excluded from any share of the government by the advice (as he suspected) of Rizzio, an Italian musician, Mary's favorite and secretary, he suddenly surprised them together, and Rizzio was slain in the queen's presence, in 1566. An apparent reconciliation afterward took place; a

new favorite of the queen appeared in the earl of Bothwell; and in February, 1567, Darnley, who had continued to reside separately from the queen, was assassinated, and the house he occupied was blown up with gunpowder. In the month of May following, Mary wedded the earl of Bothwell, who was openly accused as the murderer of the late king. Scotland soon became the scene of confusion and civil discord. Mary was made a captive, and committed to custody in the castle of Loch Leven. After some months' confinement she effected her escape, and, assisted by the few friends who still remained attached to her, made an effort for the recovery of her power. The battle of Langside insured the triumph of her enemies; and, to avoid falling again into their power, she fled to England, and sought the protection of Queen Elizabeth, a step which created a very serious embarrassment for Elizabeth and her ministers. For eighteen years Mary was detained as a state prisoner; and, during the whole of that time, she was recognized as the head of the Catholic party, who wished to see a princess of their faith on the throne of England. Mary, despairing of recovering that of Scotland, countenanced their plots. She was accordingly tried for a conspiracy against the life of the queen of England, condemned, and suffered decapitation, February 8th, 1587, in the castle of Fotheringay, where she had been long confined. The character and conduct of Mary, queen of Scots, have been made the subject of much controversy; the popular view, both in Scotland and England, making her the "unfortunate" Mary, almost a suffering saint, sentimentally brooding over her calamities, and refusing to admit her crimes and follies. Froude, who has told her story once more in the third volume of his "History of the Reign of Queen Elizabeth," has made this view no longer tenable. The verdict of Burton, in his new "History of Scotland," is no less severe and decisive.

Stuarts in England, (1603–1714.) The great-grandson of Margaret Tudor, eldest daughter of Henry VII., succeeded in 1603 to the throne by the appointment of Elizabeth, as well as by the right of succession. The crowns of the two kingdoms were thus united, though Scotland still retained a separate parliament. This dynasty gave eight rulers to England. (See Genealogy, I.) From the unfortunate Mary down to Queen Anne, the last of this dynasty who reigned in England, we find almost all the Stuarts endowed with intelligence, imagination, refinement, and amiable qualities in abundant measure. The coldness, the measured reserve, the perseverance and sagacity of the Tudors, however, were, often to the detriment of their fortunes, wanting to the Stuarts. With these qualities and manners, even had several members of the Stuart family had less leaning toward the Catholic creed, the sentiments of the rigid Protestant party in England would have little congeniality. Influenced by such predilections, and by earlier family ties, they formed foreign connections; at first allied themselves with Spain, and subsequently fell under the influence of France, and these foreign connections led to their downfall.

Suetonius, Tranquillus, Caius, a Roman historian, who lived in the first and second centuries of our era. He was the son of a Roman officer, became an advocate at Rome, and afterward secretary to the emperor Hadrian. Suetonius was the friend of Pliny the younger. He wrote numerous works, of which four are extant. The most important is his "Vitæ Duodecim Cæsarum," (Lives of the Twelve Cæsars,) which contains a large mass of curious and valuable facts, and though not systematically or rhetorically composed, but chiefly anecdotic, is esteemed impartial and trustworthy. It has passed through a great number of editions, and has been translated into almost all European languages. His other extant works are notices of grammarians, rhetoricians, and poets. An English translation of Suetonius is included in Bohn's Classical Library.

Suger, Abbé, first minister to Louis VI. and Louis VII. of France, was born of an obscure family in the 11th century, and was brought up at the abbey of St. Denis, where he was the companion of Louis VI. On the accession of this prince to the throne, in 1108, Suger became his confidential adviser. He was named abbot of St. Denis in 1122, and assumed the usual pomp of high-church dignitaries; but the preaching of St. Bernard induced him to renounce it. He had a large share in the conduct of the government, both in home and foreign affairs, and showed great practical wisdom. Louis VII. continued him in the same office. He endeavored to prevent the young king going on the crusade, but failing, accepted the regency during the absence of Louis. In his old age he wished to promote a crusade, and even proposed to raise an army and be its general. This mad project was crossed by his death in 1152. The

Abbé Suger left a Life of his master, Louis VI., and an account of the principal events of his administration.

Sulla, Lucius Cornelius, (B. C. 138–78,) Dictator of Rome. He was of a patrician family, was well educated, and showed in his youth an equal love for literary and for sensual pleasures. His first active service in war was in 107, when, as quæstor of Marius in Africa, he negotiated with Bocchus the surrender of Jugurtha to himself, and thus shared the honor of closing the war. Jealousy sprang up between Marius and Sulla, which subsequently ripened into the bitterest personal and political enmity. Sulla nevertheless acted as legatus to Marius in the war with the Cimbri and Teutones; but soon transferred his services to Catulus, the fellow-consul of Marius, (101.) After a period of retirement he was named prætor for 93, and increased his popularity by the exhibition of a hundred African lions in the circus. Sulla took a distinguished part in the Social war, and captured Bovianum, the capital of the Samnites. His rivalry with Marius reached its highest point in 88, when Sulla was consul and was charged with the conduct of the war against Mithradates. Marius, with the aid of the tribune P. Sulpicius, got the command transferred to himself, and Sulla fled from Rome to his camp at Nola. Superseded even there, he boldly marched on Rome, made himself master of the city, and proclaimed Marius and eleven of his adherents traitors. Surrounded by difficulties and dangers, he quitted Rome early in 87, and passed into Greece, to carry on the war with Mithradates. He besieged Athens, took and pillaged it; won two victories over Archelaus, the general of Mithradates, at Chæronea and Orchomenos; passed the Hellespont, and early in 84 concluded a peace. After defeating Fimbria, who was sent to supersede him, he returned to Athens, and arrived in Italy in 83. During his absence his rivals had gained the upper hand, and his forces were inferior in numbers to theirs. But by successive victories, and by bribery for desertion, he vanquished them, and in 82 was once more master of Rome. He was created dictator, and took fearful vengeance by a proscription of the popular party, thus establishing a reign of terror, under which thousands were put to death and their estates confiscated. He celebrated his conquest of Mithradates by a magnificent triumph, and assumed the surname of Felix. He reduced the tribunate to a mere name, reconstituted the senate, restoring to it the importance and jurisdiction which it had lost, established military colonies, and gave the rights of citizenship to a very large number of slaves. The main object of his policy and legislation was to revive at least the spirit of the old civil and political restrictions. But the whole artificial structure which he raised was overthrown within ten years. Sulla resigned the dictatorship in 79. Little more than a year after his retirement, in the 60th year of his life, while yet vigorous in body and mind, he was overtaken by death; after a brief confinement to a sick-bed, the rupture of a blood-vessel carried him off, (78 B. C.) He was writing at his autobiography two days even before his death.

Sully, Maximilien de Bethune, Duke of, (1559–1641,) a celebrated French statesman and warrior, prime-minister of Henry IV. At an early age he entered the service of the king of Navarre, afterward Henry IV. of France, to whom he ever continued to be firmly attached. He distinguished himself on several occasions by a bravery approaching to rashness. But his abilities as a diplomatist and financier were far more remarkable. In 1597 he was placed at the head of the department of finance. In this capacity, Sully established order and the strictest economy in all branches of the administration; revised the funds of the state, and quickly abolished many vexatious imposts. Agriculture became the object of his particular care, and, inspired by the security of his administration, he almost doubled the price of land, by causing the fall of the interest of money. Tillage and pasturage, said Sully; these are the breasts from which France is nourished, the true mines and treasures of Peru. Manufactures not the less attracted Sully's attention: he gave them a powerful impulse by suppressing the tax of a percentage upon all merchandise sold. Sully retained to the end the confidence and friendship of Henry IV., who unfolded to him his grand projects for the establishment of a balance of political power and the religious pacification of Europe. His labors as minister of finance were attended with the happiest success; and the revenues of the state, which had been reduced to complete dilapidation by the combined effect of civil anarchy and war, were by his care restored to order. With a revenue of 35,000,000, he paid off, in ten years, a debt of 200,000,000, besides laying up 35,000,000. Though frequently thwarted in his purposes by the rapacity of the courtiers and mistresses of the monarch, he nobly pursued his

career, ever distinguishing himself as the zealous friend of his country, and not the temporizing minister of his master. His industry was unwearied. He rose every morning at four o'clock, and after dedicating some time to business, he gave audience to all who solicited admission to him. After the death of Henry IV., Sully retired from public affairs, and died in 1641. His highly important and interesting "Memoirs" were translated into English by Charlotte Lennox.

Supremacy Act. See Act of Supremacy.

Swift, Dr. Jonathan, (1667–1745,) Dean of St. Patrick's, a celebrated political, satirical, and miscellaneous writer, was born at Dublin. In 1688 he came to England, where Sir William Temple received him with great kindness, and made him his secretary. During his residence with that statesman he had frequent interviews with King William, who offered him a troop of horse, which he declined, his thoughts being directed to the Church. After some time he quarrelled with his patron, and went to Ireland, took orders, and obtained a prebend. In 1701 he entered on public life as a political pamphleteer. He also published, anonymously, his humorous "Tale of a Tub," and the "Battle of the Books." On the accession of Queen Anne he visited England, where he lived during a greater part of her reign; became intimate with Harley and Bolingbroke, and exerted himself strenuously in behalf of their party, taking a leading share in the Tory periodical, the "Examiner," while with his battery of pamphlets and pasquinades, replete with bitter sarcasm or bold invective, he kept up a constant and galling fire on their political adversaries. A bishopric in England was the grand object of his ambition; but the only preferment his ministerial friends could give him was the Irish deanery of St. Patrick's, to which he was presented in 1713. It was about this period that Swift made his first great efforts to better the condition of Ireland. He published a "Proposal for the universal Use of Irish Manufactures," which rendered him highly popular, and when his celebrated "Drapier Letters" appeared, in which he so ably exposed the job of Wood's patent for a supply of copper coinage, he became the idol of the Irish people. Believing that Swift had delivered them from a great public danger, their gratitude to him knew no bounds, nor ended even with his powers of mind. "The sun of his popularity remained unclouded, even after he was incapable of distinguishing its radiance." The Drapier's Head became a favorite sign; his portrait was engraved, woven upon handkerchiefs, and struck upon medals. His health was quaffed at every banquet, his presence everywhere welcomed with blessings by the people. They bore with all the infirmities of genius, all the peevishness of age. In vain did he show aversion to those who revered him; in vain did he sneer at the "savage old Irish." No insult on his part could weaken their generous attachment. Even at this day this grateful feeling still survives; and all parties in Ireland, however estranged on other questions, agree in one common veneration for the memory of Swift.

Sylvester I., whose name is inseparably connected with the conversion of the emperor Constantine the Great, became Pope in 314 A. D. According to the legend, the first of the Christian emperors was healed of the leprosy, and purified in the waters of baptism, by Sylvester, the bishop of Rome; and never was physician more gloriously recompensed. His royal proselyte withdrew from the seat and patrimony of St. Peter; declared his resolution of founding a new capital in the East; and resigned to the Popes the free and perpetual sovereignty of Rome, Italy, and the provinces of the West. This memorable donation was introduced to the world about 450 years later, by an epistle of Adrian I., who exhorts Charlemagne to imitate the liberality and revive the name of the great Constantine. This document is now generally acknowledged to be a clumsy and audacious forgery. But that with which Constantine actually did invest the Church, the right of holding landed property, and receiving it by bequest, was far more valuable to the Christian hierarchy than a premature and prodigal endowment, which would at once have plunged them in civil affairs, and, before they had attained their strength, made them objects of jealousy to the temporal sovereign.

Sylvester II., Pope, (Gerbert,) was a native of Auvergne. He was of an obscure family, but received a superior education, and became very distinguished as a teacher. His attainments in science procured him the reputation of a magician. Among the numerous useful inventions attributed to Gerbert is the balance-clock, which was in use till the adoption of the pendulum, in 1650. Gerbert was tutor to Otto III., and subsequently head of the school of Rheims, which he made one of the first in Europe. Robert, afterward king of France, was among his pupils. In 902 he was named

archbishop of Rheims, was deprived after three years, and, in 998, through the influence of Otto III., was named archbishop of Ravenna. He was called to the papal chair on the death of Gregory V., and administered the affairs of the Church with much prudence and moderation. He was the first French Pope. Died, at a great age, 1003. The tomb of Sylvester in the Lateran church was opened in 1648, and his remains, invested with the robes of office, were in perfect preservation; but a touch dissolved them into dust.

T.

Tacitus, Caius Cornelius, the celebrated Roman historian. He early distinguished himself as an advocate, and was made prætor and consul, (97 A. D.) Under Trajan, Tacitus enjoyed great distinction, and lived on terms of friendship with the younger Pliny. It was at this period that he published the "History of Rome, from Galba to the death of Domitian," part of which only has escaped the ravages of time. This work was followed by the "Annals," from the year of Rome 767 (A. D. 14) to the death of Nero, (A. D. 68.) He also wrote the "Life of Agricola," "The Manners of the Germans," and a "Dialogue on Oratory." No name stands higher as historian than that of Tacitus, and his writings are a rich store-house of political and philosophical wisdom. He displays a profound acquaintance with human nature, and with the subtlest influences that affect human character and conduct. His style is remarkable for conciseness, vigor, apparent abruptness, and occasional obscurity; and his writings, like all the productions of great minds, charm most those who study them best. They have been translated into almost every European language. The exact date of his death is not known.

Tamerlane, properly **Timur Beg**, (1336–1405 A. D.,) the great Tartar (Mogul) sultan and conqueror, was born at Sebzar, 40 miles to the south of Samarcand, in 1336. At an early age he entered on the career of a soldier, and by his exploits and professions attracted the hopes of his countrymen as their deliverer from foreign invasion and tyranny. In 1370, Tamerlane, who traced remotely his descent to Zenghis-Khan, was crowned sovereign of Zagatai, made Samarcand his royal seat, and set out on the path of conquest which he hoped was to lead him to the monarchy of the world. After easily making himself master of Carismia and Candahur, Timur invaded Persia, defeated Shah Mansur, near the city of Shiraz, took Baghdad, Ormuz, and Edessa, and subdued all the country along the course of the Tigris and Euphrates. He next conquered Turkestan and Kipza, or Western Tartary, penetrating even into the eastern and southern provinces of Russia, exciting alarm at Moscow, and destroying the cities of Azof, Serai, and Astrachan. In 1398 he undertook the conquest of India, which was facilitated by the internal anarchy and weakness of the country. The Mogul host crossed the Indus at Attok, traversed the Punjab, and besieged Delhi; into which city, after a great victory over the sultan Mahmoud, Timur made a triumphal entry. He advanced a hundred miles beyond Delhi, crossed the Ganges, and reached the famous rock of Coupele. Tidings of the ambitious schemes of the Ottoman sultan, Bajazet, reached Timur on the Ganges, and he returned to Samarcand. After a short interval of repose he assembled his army at Ispahan in preparation for his great expedition against Bajazet. In 1400, Timur invaded Syria, defeated the Mamelukes near Aleppo, and sacked that city; marched thence to Damascus, where he was nearly defeated, but getting possession of the city by a perfidious promise, he sacked and destroyed it. Baghdad shared the same fate, and on its ruins was reared a pyramid of 90,000 heads. In 1402 he made a swift march through Anatolia and began the siege of Angora. Bajazet hastened to the relief of the city, and in the memorable battle which took place July 28th, Timur won his greatest victory and made his rival his prisoner. While his subordinates overran the country as far as the Bosphorus, Timur besieged and took Smyrna, and put the inhabitants to death. He was already meditating the conquest of China, and preparations were made for the expedition while he was slowly returning to Samarcand. There he celebrated his triumph in 1404, and received the ambassadors of Egypt, Arabia, India, Tartary, Russia, and Spain. In January, 1405, he set out at the head of his army for China; but near

Otrar he was surprised by death, 1st April, 1405. His last ambitious design was thus crossed, and the immense dominions he had conquered and ruled with absolute power, without ministers or favorites, fell to pieces, and became the scenes of new wars and miseries. The history of Timur was written in Persian by Sheref-eddin, from authentic records kept by the secretaries of the sultan, and was translated into French by Pétis de la Croix, in 1772. Timur is said to have composed commentaries on his own life and political institutions, which have been translated from the Persian into English and French, and published under various titles. There are many other lives of this Tartar hero. Samarcand is still full of grand ruins; the green stone is still shown from which Timur issued his decrees; and so deeply is his image impressed on the hearts of the people that now, after the lapse of four centuries and a half, they speak of him as if he had but just died, and scrupulously obey his posthumous commands.

Tarik, the Arabian conqueror of Spain. Spain and the south of France were yet, in 710 A. D., under the dominion of the Visigoths, whose power would have been invincible if they had known how to obey their rulers. But the throne was shaken by faction; their kings were not accustomed to govern by the maxims of tyrants, or they would have been more able to suppress sedition. No sooner had Rodrigo hurled from the throne and put out the eyes of King Vitiza, who held his nobles under an iron sceptre, than a Spanish count invited Musa, the Arabian governor of Africa, across the straits. Musa intrusted to his general, Tarik, an army of Arabs, Moors, and Berbers. At the spot where he passed the strait, a rocky hill rises 1,400 feet above the sea, which it overhangs with a precipitous cliff toward the north and east, while the side which faces the extreme point of Europe has a more gradual descent. This height Tarik fortified: it was his rock — Gebel-al-Tarik, or Gibraltar; and he thence extended his incursions through the country. At length (713) a battle took place at Xerez, where Rodrigo fought for the crown, the freedom, and the faith of the Visigoths, against Tarik, Islam, and the ferocity of the Moslems. Long and bloody was the contest. The flower of the army perished, together with their king, and the kingdom of the Visigoths, divided and without a master, fell under the yoke of the Mohammedans. The latter extended their arms from sea to sea, and across the Pyrenæan bulwark: they conquered Narbonne, Carcassonne, and the country on the farther side, as far as the Rhone and Lyons. Many old and flourishing cities were destroyed by them, and new ones built on the same territory. In other respects they established the constitution of things which they found; only, the commander of the Faithful held the place of the king. The national assemblies, the nobles, courts of judicature, and the laws remained. The Christians obtained a toleration for their worship, and were only forbidden to speak against the faith of Islam.

Tasso, Torquato, (1544–1594,) one of the greatest poets of modern Italy, the author of "Jerusalem Delivered." He studied law at the university of Padua, but had no heart for it, and vexed his father by liking poetry better, and writing it. He entered the service of Alfonso, duke of Ferrara, who admired his poetical compositions, and made him his familiar associate. Tasso the while had fallen in love with the fair princess Eleonora, the duke's sister, and had addressed to her many love-songs, some of them overpassing the line of true delicacy. It appears probable that Alfonso by some means became possessed of some of Tasso's verses to Eleonora, and that this was the cause of his subsequent treatment of the poet. The latter, however, was of a very irritable temper, and on some occasions did not restrain himself from passionate and offensive outbreaks. On one such occasion, in 1577, the duke had him arrested and confined in a convent, alleging that he was mad; but Tasso made his escape, and visited Sorrento and Rome. He soon after begged and obtained leave of the duke to return to Ferrara; but it was on condition of submitting to the rules of the physicians, and he was not permitted to see the princess. Again he left Ferrara, went to Mantua, Urbino, and Turin, but was induced to return early in 1597. His demeanor was so violent that he was once more arrested and confined in a mad-house, where, after a time, he appears to have been kindly treated, and was allowed to write and to receive the visits of his friends. Among those who came to see him were Montaigne, the great French essayist. Through the intercession of several sovereigns — the Pope, the emperor, the duke of Mantua, and the grand-duke of Tuscany — on his behalf, he was liberated in 1586, and went first to the court of Mantua. He could not rest, but moved from place to place — now at Naples, now at Rome, then at Florence — and in 1594 he was called to Rome, to receive at the

hands of Pope Clement VIII. the laurel crown. But soon after his arrival he fell ill, and by his own desire he was removed to the monastery of St. Onofrio, where he died. Tasso's masterpiece is the "Gerusalemme Liberata," an epic poem in 24 books on the events of the great crusade and the recovery of Jerusalem from the Saracens. It was published in 1581, and the savage attacks made on it by the critics wounded the sensitive poet severely. It nevertheless won immense admiration, passed through seven editions in the first year, and took its place among the great poems of the world. It is constantly reprinted, and has been translated into almost all the languages of Europe. There are five or six English translations, the earliest by Fairfax, and the most recent those by Wiffin (1830) and Sir J. K. James, (1865.) Tasso was induced by the adverse criticism of his great poem to remodel it and make it more what the critics said it should be. He altered almost every stanza, added four cantos, and called it "Gerusalemme Conquistata." But its life was gone. The melancholy, altered manuscript is preserved in the Imperial Library, Vienna. Among his other works, which are numerous, are "Rinaldo," his earliest poem; "Aminta," an exquisite pastoral drama; "Il Torrismondo," a tragedy; many short poems, dialogues, and other prose pieces.

Templars, The Knights. Nothing can more strikingly evince the ascendency of Europe than the resistance of the Frankish settlements in Syria against the whole power of the Moslems. Several of their victories were obtained against such disparity of numbers that they may be compared with whatever is most illustrious in history or romance. These, however, were less due to the descendants of the first crusaders than to those volunteers from Europe whom martial ardor and religious zeal impelled to the service. It was the penance commonly imposed upon men of rank to serve a number of years under the banner of the Cross. Thus a perpetual supply of warriors was poured in from Europe. Of these defenders, the most renowned had enrolled themselves in one of the three ecclesiastical military orders, to wit: 1st, the Knights of the Hospital of St. John; 2d, the Knights Templars; 3d, the Teutonic Knights of St. Mary. (See this.) The Knights Templars were associated with the Knights Hospitallers in defence of the holy places, and both performed the greatest public services. In battle, the two orders took by turn the van and the rear, those who had newly taken the Cross and were unaccustomed to Asiatic warfare, being stationed between them. But the Templars were the most distinguished of the Christian warriors. By a rule of their order no brother could be redeemed for a higher ransom than a girdle or a knife; captivity was therefore equivalent to death, and they always fought with Spartan desperation. The Beauseant, the banner of the Templars, was always in the thick of the battle. It was thought that enough could never be done for so devoted and useful an order, and riches and privileges were heaped upon them. When they finally returned from Palestine (after the taking of Acre by the Mamelukes in 1291) they are said to have possessed more than 9,000 manors in Christendom. The Paris Temple was the centre of the order, its treasury, and the chapters-general were held there. All the provinces of the order were its dependencies. This great power had made them first envied, then hated. It wounded the pride of the French king, Philip IV., while their immense wealth tempted his cupidity. Before they had any suspicion of his design, he caused all the Templars in his kingdom to be seized and thrown into dungeons. Then commenced a frightful prosecution against them, where torture furnished the evidence, and where the men of the law won over by Philip filled the places of judges. The king confiscated the property of his victims, while, at the same time, he stained their characters with horrible imputations without legal proofs. The Templars perished by the sword, by hunger, and by fire, retracting in the face of execution the confessions which torture had torn from them. Jacques Molay, their grand-master, rendered himself illustrious by his courage; he protested his innocence in the middle of the flames, and it is said that he summoned both his persecutors (the king of France and the Pope) to appear before God within a year. Both died within that period.

Tennyson, Alfred, (1809–,) Poet-Laureate. Tennyson did not publish anything till 1830, when "Poems, chiefly Lyrical," appeared, and from 1842 the steady and rapid growth of his fame may be traced. It was at once apparent that the author of the "Mort d'Arthur," "Locksley Hall," the "May Queen," and the "Two Voices," was entitled to take the first rank among English poets. He has also written "The Princess, a Medley," "In Memoriam," "Maud, and other Poems," "The Idylls of the King," and

"Enoch Arden." A fine sense of natural beauty and a marvellous faculty of word-painting adorn his poems with landscape pictures which need fear comparison with those of no English poet. "Locksley Hall" is a grand hymn of human progress, in which the discoveries of science, the inventions of art, the order and movement of society, the sublime hopes and belief of religion, blend in a magnificent vision of the age, and are sung with the rapture of a prophet to the noblest music. In Maud, the commonest newspaper details of the meanness, the cheating, the cruelty, the crime and misery, so rife among us, supply food to the indignation of the man, whose temperament and circumstances make him look on the darker aspects of the time; and the same man finds in the topics of the day the comfort and the hope that restore him to sanity and peace with himself and the world. It is this wide range of thought, this sympathy with modern life in all its characteristic phases, that is Tennyson's distinguishing quality, and that, in combination with his formal poetic skill, renders him the favorite poet of the cultivated classes.

Terence, (**Publius Terentius Afer**,) (195–158 B. C.,) the celebrated Roman comic poet. He was born at Carthage, and became the slave of a Roman senator, who gave him a good education and set him free. He acquired the patronage and friendship of Lælius, and Scipio Minor, and was assisted by them in the composition of his plays. The first of these exhibited was the "Andria." This was followed by the "Hecyra," or The Stepmother, the "Heauton Timorumenos," or Self-tormentor, the "Eunuchus," the "Phormio," and the "Adelphi," or The Brothers, acted at the funeral games of Æmilius Paulus, (160.) These plays are imitations, with certain changes of plan and structure, of the works of the Greek comic poets Menander and Apollodorus. Terence, who closely followed Plautus in time, had little in common with him in character or in fortunes. He aims far less at exciting laughter by bold, coarse jests, but more at the development of the plot and the painting of the delicate shades of character. His plays lean to the instructive and sentimental, and contain passages of deep pathos and refined wit. They are also remarkable for the purity of their Latinity and the variety of their metre. After the appearance of his six comedies, Terence left Rome for Greece, and is said to have translated there above a hundred of the comedies of Menander. There are English translations of Terence by Colman and H. T. Riley. The latter, in prose, forms part of Bohn's Classical Library.

Tertullianus, Quintus Septimus Florens, the first and one of the most celebrated of the Latin Fathers, flourished about A. D. 210. He was born at Carthage, became an eminent rhetorician, and was converted to the Christian religion. He lived to a great age, and wrote a very large number of works, some of which were early lost. The most important of his extant works his "Apology for Christianity," was addressed to the Roman magistrates in 198. In his "Testimony of the Soul," he endeavors to work out the idea of the preconformity of the human soul to the doctrine of Christ. His works are of four classes, apologetical, practical, doctrinal, and polemical. They are characterized by vast learning, profound and comprehensive thought, fiery imagination, and passionate partisanship, leading into exaggeration and sophistry. His style is frequently obscure. "He had to *create*," says Neander, "a language for the new spiritual matter, and that out of the rude Punic Latin, without the aid of a logical and grammatical education, and in the very midst of the current of thoughts and feelings by which his ardent nature was hurried along." The study of Tertullian had a marked influence on Cyprian, who used to ask his secretary for his works in the words "Da magistrum," Hand me the teacher. The doctrine of the millennial reign of Christ was taught in one of the lost works of this father.

Teutonic Knights. (See TEMPLARS.) The orders of the Temple and of St. John owed, the former their foundation, the latter their power and wealth, to noble knights. They were military and aristocratic brotherhoods, which hardly deigned to receive, at least in their higher places, any but those of gentle birth. The first founders of the Teutonic order were honest burghers of Lubec and Bremen. After the disasters which followed the death of Frederick Barbarossa, (see this,) when the army was wasting away with disease and famine before Acre, these merchants ran up the sails of their ships into tents to receive the sick and starving. Duke Frederick of Suabia saw the advantage of a German order, both to maintain the German interests and to relieve the necessities of German pilgrims. Their first house was in Acre. But it was not till the mastership of Herman von Salza that the Teutonic order emerged into distinction. It is the noblest

testimony to the wisdom, unimpeached virtue, honor, and religion of Herman von Salza, that the successive Popes, Honorius III., Gregory IX., Innocent IV., who agreed with Frederick in nothing else, nevertheless vied with the emperor in the honor and respect paid to the master Herman, and in grants and privileges to his Teutonic Knights. The order, after being withdrawn from the Holy Land, had found a new sphere for their crusading valor: the subjugation and conversion of the heathen nations to the south-east and the east of the Baltic. Thus was Christendom pushing forward its borders.

Themistocles, (B. C. 514–449,) the illustrious Athenian statesman and general. His aim was mainly the greatness and security of Athens, but this perhaps in order that he might have the wider field for his personal influence and action. He saw the necessity of naval supremacy for Athens, and succeeded in getting a decree for applying the produce of the silver mines of Laurium to the building of ships. When Xerxes invaded Greece in 480, Themistocles had the command of the fleet, and by his advice the citizens abandoned Athens with their families, and went to Salamis, Ægina, and Troezen. On the appearance of the Persian fleet off Salamis, he could scarcely dissuade the Peloponnesians from leaving; and at the last moment, in order to save the Greeks in spite of themselves, he resorted to the stratagem of sending a secret message to Xerxes, which induced him to make an immediate attack. The Greeks were thus compelled to cease debating, and fight; and the great victory of Salamis was won. His fame among his countrymen was now established. In the following year, under his direction the Athenians undertook the rebuilding of their walls and the fortifications of Piræus. A Spartan embassy was sent to hinder the work; but Themistocles, by his clever, unscrupulous diplomacy, thwarted Sparta, and the supremacy of Athens was secured. His influence, however, began to wane. He was accused of enriching himself by exacting contributions from the islands which had supported the Persians, and of receiving bribes for political services; he indulged also in the habit of boasting of his services to his country. In 471 he was banished from Athens, and went to Persia. He obtained the confidence of the king, Artaxerxes, and promised to render him a great service, requesting a year's delay. The king gave him a pension, in Oriental fashion—three towns, Magnesia, Myus, and Lampsacus—for his maintenance, and he settled at Magnesia. There he died, in 449, and a splendid monument was erected to him in the public place. His bones were, however, carried, it is said by his own desire, to Athens. For an earnest vindication of the character of this great Athenian from some of the gravest charges usually brought against him, see Cox's "Tale of the Great Persian War," part ii., ch. 6.

Theodora, (900 A. D.) The Latin Church had indeed preserved her purity in the ten persecutions; but when she came forth from the catacombs to take possession of the Basilicas, a change for the worse was soon remarked. She struggled for 300 years against paganism; she struggled for 300 years longer against Arianism; she then conquered heathen Germany and her old Scandinavian and Hungarian oppressors. At last she had to conquer the licentiousness and lawlessness which prosperity had engendered in her own bosom. The beginning of the 10th century marks the darkest period in the history of the Church. At that time she had not only lost all commanding authority, but could not even maintain outward decency. During this time rose into power the infamous Theodora, with her daughters, who, in the strong language of contemporary historians, disposed for many years of the papal tiara, and, not content with disgracing by their own licentious lives the chief city of Christendom, actually placed their profligate paramours or base-born sons in the chair of St. Peter.

Theodoric the Great, (455–526.) Since the death of Attila, the Ostrogoths had re-established their ancient independence. They now inhabited the country between the Danube and the Save. They received a tribute from the emperors of the East, and in return gave them hostages for the maintenance of peace. Of this nation was the young Theodoric. At Constantinople he derived the same advantage from the remains of the old Roman institutions, which Philip of Macedon had drawn from the lessons of the conqueror of Leuctra. When Theodoric, in his 18th year, returned to his country at the head of 6,000 warriors, he attacked, without the knowledge of his father, and defeated the armies of a Sarmatian king. The Goths, assuming new courage, demanded to be led into regions where they might dwell with greater freedom, and obtain the reward of arms. Theudmir, the father of Theodoric, accordingly passed the boundaries of Illyricum.

He obliged the imperial court to make considerable additions to those tributary recompenses with which it was accustomed annually to reward the valor of the Gothic youth. Theudmir on his death-bed declared Theodoric to be the most worthy, who accordingly was chosen to be his successor. The emperor Zeno spared nothing in order to conciliate the young prince, and at length came to the resolution of formally surrendering Italy to Theodoric, after recommending to his patronage the Roman senate, which now groaned under the sway of the Heruli. Immediately the Ostrogoths, under the guidance of their chief, now in his 24th year, set out, with all their herds and the whole of their property, from the Danube and the Save, and approached the confines of Italy. Theodoric twice defeated the Italian armies; he entered the Venetian country, and Odoacer fled to Rome. This city, in the 15th year after the subversion of its empire, shut its gates against Odoacer, who took refuge in Ravenna. The senate and people of Rome received Theodoric with respect. He re-established the court, the salaries, and the distributions of bread as they had been conducted under the emperors. Humanity, temperance, and prudence elevated Theodoric above all other barbarian kings. By family alliances he became the relative and friend, by his power and wisdom the protector of all the kings of the West. He had an army always ready for maintaining public tranquillity and undertaking necessary enterprises. The former was his chief object; and on that account he wrote to the young kings, with the authority of a father: "All of you have proofs of my regard for you. You are youthful warriors, and it is my office to give you counsel. Your disorderly proceedings occasion me vexation. It is not without concern that I observe you give yourselves up to the government of your passions." Theodoric caused Pavia, where he often resided, as well as several other Italian cities, to be ornamented with magnificent architecture; and he was more proud of the arts and learning which yet flourished in his kingdom than of the power of his arms.

Theodosius, (A. D. 346–395,) the Great, Emperor of the East, was a native of Spain. He was the son of the general of the same name who was appointed to the command in Britain in 367. Theodosius accompanied his father in his campaigns, and was made governor of Mœsia, which province he saved by a victory over the Sarmatians. After the great defeat of the Romans, and the death of Valens at the battle of Adrianople, in 378, Theodosius was called by Gratian to assume the government of the East, and to take the conduct of the Gothic war. He fixed his headquarters at Thessalonica, and by prudent and cautious measures gradually weakened the Goths and delivered the empire. The revolt of Maximus and the murder of Gratian soon followed, and the former was recognized as emperor of the West by Theodosius. But, subsequently, the latter took arms in the cause of Valentinian, defeated Maximus near Aquileia, and had him put to death, in 388. From that time the empire remained in tranquil obedience to the two emperors, Theodosius and Valentinian, until the murder of the latter by his own courtiers. The assassins were conquered by Theodosius at the foot of the Alps, though not without difficulty. From this time Theodosius reigned alone, with moderation and ability, and displayed a great knowledge of mankind and of the peculiar character of his age, together with a wise indulgence to its ruling prejudices; but, unfortunately for the empire, his reign terminated in the course of a few months. Before his death he divided the empire between his two sons, Arcadius receiving the East, and Honorius the West, (395 A. D.) (See Appendix, page 192.)

Thermopylæ, (480 B. C.,) the Hot Gates, a celebrated narrow pass, leading from Thessaly into Locris, and the only road by which an enemy can penetrate from northern into southern Greece. It lay between Mount Œta and an inaccessible morass, forming the edge of the Maliac gulf. Thermopylæ is immortalized by the heroic defence of Leonidas, the Spartan king, who considered that the example of an heroic sacrifice would be the greatest service he could bestow upon the land of his fathers: he disdained the few years of life which yet remained to him, and resolved to gain immortality in the memory of all great men who should by similar necessities be reminded of his fate. When he learned that the Persians had discovered a footpath by means of which they had ascended the height above him, he performed sacrifice, adorned with his royal vestments, to the gods of Lacedæmon, supped with his 300 warriors clothed in their best attire, and rushed upon the hosts of the Persians. Four times he pursued the flying enemy, but was at length overpowered by numbers. Leonidas fell with his 300 companions, and merited the inscription that was placed on his

tomb: "Stranger, go and relate at Lacedæmon, that we all fell here in obedience to the laws of our country."

Thomas à Becket. See BECKET.

Thomas à Kempis. See KEMPIS.

Thrasybulus, an illustrious Athenian, had a command in the fleet at Samos, in B. C. 411, and not only prevented the establishment of an oligarchical government in that island, but took a leading part in the overthrow of the tyranny of the Four Hundred at Athens. He distinguished himself at the battle of Cyzicus, recovered for Athens the towns of Thrace, and took part in the battle of Arginusæ, in 406. He was chosen with Theramenes to visit the wrecks after the fight, and to save all the men they could; but being prevented by stormy weather, the generals were impeached. Banished from Athens by the Thirty Tyrants, he resolved in his retirement at Thebes to attempt the deliverance of his country. With a small band of fellow-exiles, and a small supply of arms and money from the Thebans, he seized, in 403, the fortress of Phyle, within twelve miles of Athens; defeated, with his increased force, the troops sent against him, and four days after marched by night into the Piræus, where the people gladly joined him. He won another victory at Munychia, and the Thirty were deposed, a new college of Ten being appointed. The Ten, however, were equally hostile to Thrasybulus, and asked the aid of Sparta. Lysander blockaded the exiles in Piræus, and Pausanias, the Spartan king, marched into Attica, as if to support him. But he used his influence as mediator, and a treaty was concluded between the opposing parties, under the guarantee of Sparta. The exiles returned, and soon after a complete amnesty was granted to the partisans of the Thirty. Thrasybulus worked quietly for many years for the good of Athens, and was once more called to command the fleet in 389. After many successes, he was murdered the same year by the citizens of Aspendus, in Pamphylia.

Thucydides, (471–400 B. C.,) the historian of the Peloponnesian war. While Herodotus was reciting his history at Olympia, (456 B. C.,) he observed a young man beside him who betrayed marks of strong emotion; he was struck with the intelligent aspect of his countenance, and counselled his father to give him the education of a philosopher. Thucydides was the name of this youth, who afterward became the historian of the great Peloponnesian war, which, after 27 years' duration, ended with the downfall of Athens, (431–404 B. C.) Thucydides, in recording the period of the Athenian sway, from the last battle against the Persians to the 22d year of the Peloponnesian war, (411 B. C.,) has displayed such profound thought, such knowledge of men and of states, and at the same time so powerful, so majestic an eloquence, that as an historian he is ever preferred to all others, and as an orator he rivals the fame of Demosthenes. Every closer study of Thucydides opens to our view a greater perfection of art. Herodotus is more fascinating, but the manner of Thucydides is more noble and exalted. Thucydides neither attained during his life nor desired to attain the fame of a popular historian: he wished rather to be studied thoroughly than to become of a sudden generally applauded, and wrote more for the few than for the many.

Tiberius, (B. C. 42–37 A. D.,) the second Roman Emperor. After the death of Augustus, whose step-son he was, he secured carefully the good will of the soldiers, and suffered himself to be entreated by the senate to accept the chief honors, which for many years he had sought by every means. During his reign a new system of government gradually displayed itself. Tiberius was a chief of no mean acquirements in military tactics, and, in the arts of dissimulation, a rival of his predecessor. He had all the faults of Augustus, and none of his virtues. The vigilance of Augustus was at length fatiguing to Tiberius; but he wanted courage to abolish the forms which recalled the memory of ancient times and institutions; and he preferred to destroy, under various pretences, all who, either by their personal qualities in the senate, or by preponderating influence elsewhere, appeared able or desirous to attain to public honors. Tiberius felt himself under restraint until he had seen the end of the noble Germanicus, the chief object of his anxious vigilance, who perished not without suspicion of poison; but he afterward loosened the rein more and more to his atrocious passions. He had formed himself a cabinet or secret council of twenty chief senators; of these, eighteen were put to death by his command, and the nineteenth destroyed himself. From this time the Roman history puts on a gloomy aspect; the great names of antiquity were exterminated, or we observe them, with far keener regret, disgraced by their

posterity. Now we hear the mandates of the hoary tyrant, inspired by a black policy, issue from the inaccessible palaces of Capreæ, the abodes of sensual vice; now in the capital we behold the turbulent fury of a senseless youth on the pinnacle of the world: all the laws of reason and of the former ages were obscured and trodden down by the new code of treason; the provinces were exhausted by the cupidity of governors, and laid waste by the incursions of barbarians.

Tilly, John Szerclas, (1559–1632 A. D.,) the famous commander-in-chief of the imperial armies in the Thirty Years' War. He first served in the Spanish army in the Netherlands, next in the imperial army, and about 1607 was appointed commander-in-chief of the Bavarian army. To this post was added that of commander-in-chief of the forces of the Catholic League. In this capacity he greatly distinguished himself during the Thirty Years' War. After conquering the Upper Palatinate, he won the great battle of Prague against the Bohemians, in November, 1620; and, after several other victories, defeated the duke of Brunswick near Munster, in 1623, and was made count of the empire. After the disgrace and dismissal of Wallenstein, Tilly was appointed, in 1630, commander-in-chief of the imperial armies, and at the same time was created field-marshal. In the following spring he besieged and took Magdeburg, which he gave up to pillage and massacre for three days, and then destroyed. After being victor in thirty-six battles, he was at length defeated near Leipsic, by Gustavus Adolphus, and severely wounded, in September, 1631. His career closed with the battle on the banks of the Lech, in which he was again defeated by Gustavus, and, being mortally wounded, died the next day, April 6th, 1632, at Ingolstadt. Tilly was never married, and lived as abstemiously as an ideal monk — a small, taciturn, authoritative man, who fought fanatically for the Catholic Church.

Titus, (40–81, A. D.) Under Vespasian, Rome obtained a respite of nine years from internal convulsions. The most enterprising of the factious chiefs had fallen in the wars, and the more fortunate of them hailed the enjoyment of repose. Although the emperor had to thank the army for his throne, he permitted himself to be formally invested by a decree of the senate. Rome was restored to rest, and as soon as military discipline was re-established, the Parthians submitted to a treaty of peace; a regular administration of the finances became to every wealthy citizen a guarantee of his security; and under this reign the treasury was the resource of the unfortunate. Vespasian was just; Titus was the delight of mankind and one of the most virtuous of the human race. Titus was beloved by the Romans, and those the Romans loved ever died young. Fate, indeed, did not always require that they should suffer; but the career of Titus was not only brief, but clouded in its latter years by a series of public disasters. The city was visited, in the first place, by a terrible conflagration, which raged unchecked for three days, and was second only in extent to that, hardly yet repaired, of Nero. The capitol itself fell once more a prey to the flames. Again Rome suffered from a pestilence, in which 10,000 persons perished daily. The great eruption of Vesuvius, which overwhelmed the cities of Campania, was perhaps more alarming, though the loss it inflicted might be much less considerable. A less popular prince might have been accused of himself setting fire to the city, and even the eruption and pestilence might have been imputed to the divine vengeance on his crimes. But in this case, the Romans were willing to charge the national sufferings on national sins. Titus expired on the 13th of September, 81, having not quite completed his fortieth year. During the course of his short reign of two years and two months, he had religiously observed the principle which he had proclaimed on accepting the chief priesthood, that the hands of God's first minister should be kept free from the stain of blood.

Trajan, (52–117.) After Domitian had been assassinated, his successor, Nerva, a venerable old man, confided the cares of government, which were too heavy for himself, to Trajan. During more than 200 years, the senate was accustomed to hail every new emperor with the exclamation, "Reign fortunately, as Augustus; virtuously, as Trajan!" He was the greatest of the Cæsars since the time of the dictator, and the best of them all, since he had no civil war, no injustice to reproach himself with. Never was a monarch so enterprising, so great in his designs, so persevering in the completion of them, and at the same time so little anxious for external splendor; so gracious to all the citizens, and on such terms of equality with his friends. Trajan extended the bounds of the empire, which had been maintained with difficulty since the time of Augustus, beyond the fruitful plains and mountains of Dacia, which included Moldavia and Transyl-

vania; the emirs of the Arabian desert acknowledged his commands; and at length Crassus was revenged, and the plans of Cæsar were accomplished. He conquered the Parthian residence of Ctesiphon; he sent ships to India; and his age alone prevented him from renewing the exploits of Alexander. This illustrious conqueror, as he walked through the streets of Rome, permitted every citizen to accost him with freedom. When he delivered his sword to the captain of his guard, he said, "For me, if I govern well; against me, if I would become a tyrant!" During his reign, which lasted 19 years, only one senator was capitally punished, and he had been found worthy of death by his colleagues. The legal system of Rome was brought to perfection under his guidance, and he ornamented the city and the empire with magnificent buildings, and founded an extensive library. All the nations, whose wounds he healed, revered him as a vice-regent of the beneficent gods, and their tears were his most eloquent panegyric. From Cilicia, where he died, his body was conveyed to Rome; it was received by the senate and people, carried in pomp into the city, and deposited in the forum named after him, under that column, 140 feet in height, on which his exploits are inscribed. That column yet defies the impotence of time, as the name of Trajan rises above the oblivion and indifference in which history has involved the multitude of kings.

Triumvirate, The First. A reconciliation having been effected between Pompey and Crassus, through the intervention of Cæsar, the three entered into a compact to oppose the aristocracy. This "union of talent with reputation and wealth, by means of which the one party hoped to rise, the other to retain, and the third to win," is called the First Triumvirate. The alliance, which these three persons ratified by their oaths, remained long a secret, and it was only during Cæsar's consulship (59 B. C.) that it became matter of public notoriety from the unanimity they displayed in all their political resolutions.

Troyes, Treaty of. The assassination of John the Fearless, in 1419, made peace between the factions of the Armagnacs and Burgundians impossible. Philip the Good, the new duke of Burgundy, in order to avenge his father, offered the crown to Henry V., and the guilty Isabeau, unworthy queen and still more unworthy mother, negotiated between her unconscious husband and Henry V. the shameful treaty of Troyes, signed in 1420, by which, in contempt of the rights of the royal princes of France, the crown was bestowed in perpetuity on Henry and his descendants. This treaty, which could not come into effect until the death of Charles VI., was immediately sealed by the marriage of her daughter to Henry. The regency of the kingdom, during the malady of the king, was to be intrusted to Henry V., with the title of regent; and he swore that he would maintain the jurisdiction of the parliament, as well as the rights of the peers, the nobles, the cities, towns, and communities of France, and to govern the kingdom according to its laws and customs. This treaty was received with favor by the Parisians, equally tired of the yokes of the Armagnacs and the Burgundians, and was solemnly approved of by the shameful states-general, convoked in the capital and presided over by the king. But Henry V. took upon himself the task of destroying the new people whom he ought to have governed, and it was through his cruelties that the heart of the French people was restored to the dauphin.

Tullus Hostilius. The earliest demonstrable boundaries of the Roman community were in the landward direction, about five miles distant from the town; and it was only toward the coast that they extended as far as the mouth of the Tiber, at a distance of somewhat more than 14 miles from Rome. Larger and smaller tribes surrounded the new city. It seems to have been at the expense of these neighbors that the earliest extensions of the Roman territory took place. The Latin communities situated on the Upper Tiber and between the Tiber and Anio appear to have forfeited their independence in very early times to the arms of the Romans. By these conquests the Roman territory was probably extended to about 190 square miles. Another very early achievement of the Roman arms was preserved in the memory of posterity with greater vividness than those obsolete struggles. Alba, the ancient sacred metropolis of Latium, was conquered and destroyed by Roman troops. Rome gained, in consequence of that event, the right to preside at the Latin festival — a right which was the basis of the hegemony of Rome over the whole Latin confederacy. While the Latin stock was thus becoming united under the leadership of Rome, and was at the same time extending its territory on the east and south, Rome herself, by the favor of fortune and the energy of her citizens, had become converted from a stirring commercial and agricultural town

into the powerful capital of a flourishing province. Temples and sanctuaries arose on all the summits — above all, the federal sanctuary of Diana on the Aventine; and, on the summit of the stronghold, the far-seen temple of father Diovis, who had given to his people all this glory, and who now, when the Romans were triumphing over the surrounding nations, triumphed along with them over the subject gods of the vanquished.

Turenne, Henri de la Tour d'Auvergne, Viscount, (1611–1675,) the great French general. In his fourteenth year he was sent to Holland, where he learned the art of war under his uncles, Maurice and Henry of Nassua. Sent to Paris as a hostage, in 1630, he was appointed to a command in the French army. One of his most famous exploits was the conduct of the retreat after the battle of Marienthal, in 1645. About three months later, he gained the victory of Nordlingen, over the imperialists. In 1653 began his splendid campaigns in the Netherlands, where Condé commanded against him, and which only terminated with the peace of the Pyrenees, concluded in 1659, soon after the defeat of Condé at the battle of the Dunes. In 1660 he was named by Louis XIV. marshal-general of the armies of the king. After the death of his wife, he renounced Protestantism, and was received, in 1688, into the Catholic Church — a change he is said to have long meditated. Turenne was again called to active service in 1672. In this war he had for his opponent Montecuculi, (see this,) and he carried the war into the heart of Germany with brilliant success; but sullied his reputation by the devastation of the Palatinate, in which thirty villages were burned. This great man, whose private life was as pure as his military career was glorious, was shot while making preparation for an engagement near Salzbach, July 27th, 1675. He was buried in the tomb of the kings at St. Denis.

Tyre, (Tyrus,) the most celebrated and important city of Phœnicia. It was built partly on an island and partly on the mainland. That part of the city which lay on the mainland was called Old Tyre, extended for seven miles along the shore, and was situated in one of the broadest and most fertile plains of Phœnicia. The island on which the new city was built is the largest rock of a belt that runs along this part of the coast, containing about 40 acres. The smallness of this area was, however, compensated by the great height of the houses of Tyre. The powerful navies of Tyre were received and sheltered in two roadsteads and two harbors, one on the north, the other on the south side of the island. The insular situation of Tyre, the height and strength of its walls, and the command which it possessed of the sea seemed to render it impregnable, and hence the Tyrians, when summoned by Alexander to surrender, prepared for an obstinate resistance. The only method which occurred to the mind of that conqueror of overcoming the difficulties presented to his arms by the site of Tyre, was to connect it to the mainland by means of a mole. Yet, after all the labor bestowed upon the mole, Tyre was not captured by means of it. But a breach was made in the walls by battering-rams fixed on vessels; and while this was assaulted by means of ships provided with bridges, simultaneous attacks were directed against both harbors, which were successful, and Alexander entered the city. Provoked by the long resistance of the Tyrians, and the obstinate defence still maintained from the roofs of the houses, the Macedonian soldiery set fire to the city, and massacred 8,000 of the inhabitants. The remainder were sold into slavery to the number of 30,000, and 2,000 were crucified in expiation of the murders of certain Macedonians during the course of the siege.

U.

Ulphilas, (311–381,) Bishop and Apostle of the Goths. He appears to have begun his pious labors among the West Goths, in the reign of Constantine, and to have continued them through great part of the reign of Valens. He won the love and confidence of his people by his blameless life and religious earnestness, and did them important service not only by his teaching and ministrations, but by successfully conducting important negotiations between them and the Roman empire. The most memorable service rendered to his countrymen by Ulphilas was the translation of the Bible into their language, for which he had first to devise an alphabet. He omitted the four Books of the Kings, lest their warlike spirit should excite too

much the naturally fierce disposition of the people. A volume containing the Four Gospels of this Gothic version, very imperfect, was discovered in a monastery near Cologne, and, after singular fortunes, found a permanent rest in the university of Upsala. It is bound in silver, and is therefore called the "Codex Argenteus." The version of Ulphilas possesses very high interest and importance as the most ancient monument of the Teutonic family of languages.

V.

Valois in France. (See Genealogy, III. and VII.) Charles IV. of France having died without male issue, the parliament was summoned to decide between the candidates for the throne. The two principal were Philip of Valois, grandson of Philip III. and cousin-german of the last three kings of France, and Edward III., king of England, son of Isabella, sister of those princes. The interpretation already twice given during twelve years to the Salic law then received a third and last sanction. Women were declared to be deprived of all right to the crown, which the parliament solemnly awarded to Philip of Valois, who thus became the ancestor of the Valois. They ruled France from 1328 until 1589, when they died out with Henry III. The accession of the house of Valois to the throne of France gave rise to the sanguinary wars between France and England, which lasted for more than a hundred years. (See Appendix, page 198.)

Vasco de Gama. See GAMA.

Vassy, Massacre of, (1562 A. D.) The duke of Guise, travelling with his brothers to Paris, passed through Vassy, a town which formed part of the dower of Mary Stuart. It was governed by Antoinette de Bourbon, Mary's grandmother and mother of the Guises, who expressed much annoyance at the Calvinists having established a conventicle in a barn not far from the parish church. Either through chance or design, Guise entered Vassy with his troops on a Sunday, when a congregation of more than 1,000 Huguenots were assembled in the barn for worship. The scene that ensued has been differently described by Catholic and Protestant writers. The former assert that the Huguenots were the aggressors; that some of Guise's men had strayed to the spot from mere curiosity; and that, a tumult having arisen, the duke was struck on the cheek with a stone before his soldiers made use of their weapons. This version somewhat resembles the fable of the wolf and the lamb; and it is hardly probable that a defenceless multitude should have provoked a contest with a body of well-armed troops. But however this may be, a dreadful slaughter ensued. Between forty and fifty persons were killed on the spot, and upward of one hundred more were wounded, many of whom subsequently died of the injuries they had received. Guise sent for the mayor of Vassy, and severely reprehended him for allowing the Huguenots to meet; and when that magistrate pleaded that he had only acted in conformity with the existing edict, the duke, drawing his sword, furiously exclaimed: "Detestable edict! with *this* will I break it." This massacre was the prelude to the religious wars in France.

Vega, Lopez de, (1562–1635,) a celebrated Spanish poet. After studying at Alcala, he entered into the service of the duke of Alva, at whose instance he wrote the heroic pastoral of "Arcadia." Soon after this he married; but, on the loss of his wife, he embarked in the armada prepared for the invasion of England. In the course of this voyage he wrote a poem called "Hermosura de Angelica," to which, when published, he added the "Dragontea," an invective against Drake and Queen Elizabeth. In 1620, Lopez married a second time, and again became a widower, on which he entered into the order of St. Francis. He still, however, cultivated poetry, and scarcely a week passed without seeing a drama from his prolific muse. He wrote above a thousand plays after his entrance into the order. Honors flowed in upon him, and he was idolized by the whole nation. At his death, which happened in 1635, the highest honors were paid to his remains, and all the poets of the age vied in rendering tribute to his memory.

Venice. The celebrated name of Venice or Venetia, was formerly diffused over a large and fertile province of Italy, from the confines of Pannonia to the river Addua, and from the Po to the Rhætian and Julian Alps. Before the irruption of the barbarians, fifty Venetian cities flourished in peace and prosperity, among which Aquileia and Padua were the most renowned. Many families from these and other neighboring cities had fled from the sword of the Huns, and found a safe though obscure refuge in the neighboring islands. At the extremity of the gulf, where the Adriatic feebly imitates the tides of the ocean, near a hundred small islands are separated by shallow water from the continent, and protected from the waves by several long slips of land, which admit the entrance of vessels through some secret and narrow channels. Till the middle of the 5th century these remote and sequestered spots remained without cultivation, with few inhabitants, and almost without a name. But the manners of the Venetian fugitives, their arts and their government, were gradually formed by their new situation. In the beginning, their only treasure consisted in the plenty of salt, which they extracted from the sea; and the exchange of that commodity, so essential to human life, was substituted in the neighboring markets to the currency of gold and silver. A people, whose habitations might be doubtfully assigned to the earth and water, soon became alike familiar with the two elements. They penetrated into the heart of Italy by the secure though laborious navigation of the rivers and inland canals. Their vessels, which were continually increasing in size and number, visited all the harbors of the gulf; and the marriage, which Venice during many centuries annually celebrated, was contracted in her early infancy. Since the beginning of the 9th century (about 810 A. D.) it became the commercial metropolis of the Adriatic.

Venusia, (290 B. C.,) a city of Apulia, situated on the Appian Way, about 10 miles south of the river Aufidus. In 290 the whole of the Samnites were finally forced to become subjects of Rome, and the strong fortress of Hatria was established in the Abruzzi, not far from the coast. But the most important colony of all was that of Venusia, whither the unprecedented number of 20,000 colonists was conducted. That city, founded at the boundary of Samnium, Apulia, and Lucania, on the great road between Tarentum and Samnium, in an uncommonly strong position, was destined as a curb to keep in check the surrounding tribes, and above all to interrupt the communications between the two most powerful enemies of Rome in southern Italy. At the same time the southern highway, the Appian Way, which Appius Claudius had carried to Capua, was prolonged thence to Venusia. The foundation of Venusia put the seal to the conquest of central Italy.

Verres, Caius, the rapacious proprætor of Sicily. He went thither B. C. 73, and the island was left at his mercy during the following years. By his unbounded avarice and the unscrupulous cruelty and tyranny with which he gratified it, the island was completely desolated, and the inhabitants reduced to want and despair. It was resolved to prosecute him, and the conduct of the proceedings was intrusted to Cicero. All attempts of the friends of Verres to get it out of Cicero's hands, and to put it off, failed; and by mere weight of testimony, without flourish of oratory, the case was decided against him. He quitted Rome before sentence was actually passed, his own advocate, Hortensius, giving up the defence. Verres settled at Marseilles, and was afterward proscribed by Antony. There are seven orations of Cicero against Verres, of which only two were spoken.

Vespasian, Titus Flavius, (9–79,) Roman Emperor. He began life as a soldier, and served in the Roman armies, gradually rising to distinction. In 66 he was charged by Nero with the conduct of the Jewish war. He was still engaged in it when Nero died; and while the civil war was going on between Otho and Vitellius, Vespasian was proclaimed emperor, A. D. 69. He returned to Italy, leaving the conduct of the Jewish war to his son Titus, and applied himself to the re-establishment of order and the improvement of the administration. He contented himself with the outward life of a private citizen, and contributed the force of his own example toward the introduction of a simpler mode of life and purer morals. The Jewish war ended in 70, and the next year Vespasian and Titus had a joint triumph. The expedition under Agricola to Britain took place during the reign of this emperor. Vespasian died, leaving two sons, Titus and Domitianus, who both became emperors. (See TITUS.)

Vinci, Leonardo da, (1452–1519,) the great Italian painter and sculptor. He showed in his boyhood a rare intelligence, and especially a wonderful

faculty for drawing. His rapid progress and extraordinary powers made his master despair of himself and give up painting entirely. Leonardo offered his services when about thirty years old to Ludovico il Moro, duke of Milan. He was at that time a master, not only in painting, but in sculpture, architecture, music, engineering, and mechanics. His accomplishments included also a vast knowledge of anatomy, botany, mathematics, and astronomy. His proposal was accepted by the duke. One of the services he rendered to Milan soon after his settling there was the establishment of an academy of arts, (1485.) His first public work, and his greatest, as a sculptor, was the model of an equestrian statue of Francisco Sforza, father and predecessor of Ludovico. The last great work executed by Leonardo at Milan was the famous picture of the "Last Supper," which he painted in oil. It was the greatest achievement of painting the world had up to that time seen; and by it Leonardo showed himself the first Italian painter who broke through the traditional forms and worked freely and directly after nature.

Vinea, Peter de, (1190–1249 A. D.,) from a low condition, raised himself, by his eloquence and legal knowledge, to the office of chancellor to the emperor Frederick II.; whose confidence in him was such that his influence in the empire became unbounded. The courtiers, envious of his exalted situation, contrived, by means of forged letters, to make Frederick believe that he held a secret and traitorous intercourse with the Pope, who was then at enmity with the emperor. In consequence of this supposed crime he was condemned to be paraded through all the cities of the Neapolitan kingdom, and to be tormented before death. Peter was taken to San Miniato in Tuscany, and there his eyes were put out. He was led through the villages, mounted on an ass; while a crier shouted, "Behold Master Peter de Vinea, the chief councillor of the emperor, who betrayed his master to the Pope! See what he has gained by his dealings. Well may he say, 'How high was I once, and how low am I brought!'" But Peter resolved to cheat Frederick of the pleasure of parading him through the towns of Apulia. On the road to Pisa, he dashed out his brains against a pillar, to which he had been chained. Dante, born not long after this tragedy, and living close to its scene, has cleared the good name of the great statesman, who was just to all but himself:

"I swear
That never faith I broke to my liege lord,
Who merited such honor; and of you,
If any to the world indeed return,
Clear he from wrong my memory, that lies
Yet prostrate under envy's cruel blow."

Virgil, (Publius Virgilius Maro,) (B. C. 70–19,) the great Roman epic poet. The small estate which he inherited from his father was assigned with the neighboring lands to the soldiers of Octavianus, and the poet was dispossessed. But through the influence of Mæcenas it was restored to him; and the first of his Eclogues is supposed to be the expression of his gratitude to Octavian. Virgil was of feeble health, and appears for the most part to have led a private, retired life. Horace was his most intimate friend. In B. C. 19, Virgil visited Greece, and meeting Augustus at Athens, set out with him for Rome. But his health, long failing, at last gave way, and he only lived to reach Brundusium. The principal works of Virgil are the "Bucolics," also called "Eclogues," the "Georgics," and the "Æneid." The Georgics are the most finished and the most pleasing of his works. In the "Æneid," Virgil imitates Homer without rivalling him, and treats very learnedly of the adventures of Æneas after the fall of Troy, and of his settlement in Latium. With the ancient legends he associates the glory of Rome and of the emperor, his patron. The works of Virgil became school-books within a short time of his death, and were the subject of numerous commentaries in after times. His high place in mediæval times appears from the fact that Dante calls him his master, and represents him as his guide through the invisible world.

Viriathus. Viriathus was a man of humble origin, who, when a youth, had bravely defended his flock from wild beasts and robbers, and in manhood endeavored to deliver his countrymen from their Roman oppressors. He was at first successful, and was at one time recognized as lord and king of all the Lusitanians. Viriathus knew how to combine the full dignity of his princely position with the homely habits of a shepherd. No badge distinguished him from the common soldier. The soldier recognized the general simply by his tall figure, by his striking sallies of wit, and, above all, by the fact that he surpassed every one of his men in temperance as well

as in toil, sleeping always in full armor, and fighting in front of all in battle. It seemed as if in that roughly prosaic age one of the Homeric heroes had appeared: the name of Viriathus resounded far and wide through Spain; and the brave nation conceived that in him at length it had found the man who was destined to break the fetters of alien domination. But as his troops, after the wont of Spanish insurrectionary armies, suddenly melted away, he was obliged to make peace with the Romans. Three of his confidants procured permission from Viriathus to enter into negotiations for peace with the Roman commander, and employed it for the purpose of selling the life of the Lusitanian hero to the foreigners in return for the assurance of personal amnesty and further rewards. On their return to the camp, they assured Viriathus of the favorable issue of their negotiations, and in the following night stabbed him while asleep in his tent, (139 B. C.)

Voltaire, Francis Marie Arouet de, (1694–1778,) the celebrated French author, distinguished as a poet, historian, and philosopher. In 1728 he published his celebrated epic poem, "La Henriade," under the title of La Ligue, and applied himself to other literary labors. A new epoch opened in Voltaire's life when, in 1736, he was flattered by a letter from Frederick, prince royal of Prussia, afterward Frederick the Great. These two remarkable men first met after the accession of Frederick to the throne, in 1740. Voltaire, in 1750, accepted the often-renewed invitation of Frederick II. to settle at his court. His residence at Potsdam, where he had a munificent pension and the key of a chamberlain, was fruitful chiefly in jealousies, dissensions, and all kinds of uneasiness, and ended, after three years, by the flight of Voltaire. He settled at length at Ferney, near the Genevese territory. There he passed the last twenty years of his life, unwearied in writing, and at the same time active in promoting the interests of the village, which, under his fostering care, grew up into a neat little town, and became the seat of a flourishing colony of watchmakers. As the home of Voltaire, Ferney became the centre of attraction for the most distinguished persons of all countries. At the age of 84, he once more visited Paris; and his whole journey and his reception there was one continuous triumph. He was everywhere attended by crowds, occupied the director's seat at the Academy, was crowned at the theatre, and then, exhausted by the excitement and loss of sleep, took opiates, and, after great suffering, fell into a lethargy, and so died, May 30th, 1778. The works of Voltaire range over almost all subjects. In addition to those already named, we may mention "Histoire de Charles XII.," "Siècle de Louis XIV.," "Siècle de Louis XV." His life, especially in its relations with Frederick the Great, is very fully treated by Carlyle in his "History" of that monarch; and no more profound, lucid, and fair estimate of Voltaire and Voltairism is to be found in English literature than is presented in Carlyle's masterly "Essay."

W.

Wakefield, Battle of, (1460 A. D.) Richard, third Duke of York, was the only son of Richard, earl of Cambridge, and Anne, daughter of Roger Mortimer, through whom and her mother Philippa he traced his descent from Lionel, duke of Clarence, third son of Edward III. (See Genealogy, I.) At the death of his father, executed for conspiracy in 1415, he was intrusted to the guardianship of the countess of Westmoreland, and ten years later the attainder was set aside, and he succeeded to the title of the duke of York. He took a very important part in public affairs, and was for some time virtually sovereign. He went, in 1449, as lord lieutenant to Ireland. He won the esteem and support of the Irish by his good administration, and then asserted his right to the crown. On his return to England, he had an interview with the king, Henry VI., and was appointed protector of the kingdom in 1454. But reconciliation of the two houses was impossible, and in the following year the wars of the Roses began. After five years of fluctuating fortune, the duke was defeated and killed at the battle of Wakefield, December 31st, 1460. His head was placed over the gates of York for a time, and then his remains were interred, first at Pomfret, and ultimately at Fotheringay. He was father of Edward IV., Richard III., and George, duke of Clarence. His daughter Margaret was married to Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy. Wakefield is situated on the Calder,

in the West Riding of Yorkshire. The battle was fought at Sendal Castle, two miles to the south of the town.

Wallace, William, (1270–1305.) When the independence of Scotland was despaired of by the greater nobles, there arose a patriotic hero from among the lesser barons, William Wallace of Ellerslie. Originally but a leader of guerillas, a successful dash on Scone drew the eyes of all Scotland upon him, and drove many of the Scottish nobles to rejoin the national standard. Thus strengthened, he attacked the English, and in the famous battle near Sterling (1297) they were completely routed and driven across the border. Every keep disgorged its English garrison, and Wallace — William the Conqueror, as his heralds styled him — assumed the title of Custos Regni Scotiæ. But in the following year, (1298,) being beaten by Edward near Falkirk, and left alone by the Scottish nobles, who all submitted to the English sovereign, he was finally betrayed into the hands of his foe, after a glorious career of nearly eight years. Sent to London, he was tried at Westminster and found guilty. He was dragged at the tails of horses to West Smithfield, and there hanged on a high gallows, torn open before he was dead, beheaded, and quartered. His head was set upon a pole at London Bridge, his right arm was sent to Newcastle, his left arm to Berwick, his legs to Perth and Aberdeen. But if King Edward had had his victim's body cut into inches, and had sent every separate inch into a separate town, he could not have dispersed it half so far and wide as his fame. Wallace will be remembered in songs and stories while there are songs and stories in the English language; and Scotland will hold him dear while her lakes and mountains last.

Wallenstein, (1583–1634,) the great general of the imperialists in the Thirty Years' War. He received the best education the age could give him. Bent on a military career, he served his first campaign against the Turks in Hungary, and displayed his dashing courage at the siege of Gran. Marrying soon after, he spent the next ten or eleven years on his estates, growing richer and richer, till at last he became the richest nobleman in Bohemia. On the outbreak of the war in Bohemia, he was appointed quartermaster-general of the imperial army, and he not only served the emperor with his sword, but also with his purse. In 1626, at the head of a large army raised by his own efforts and at his own expense,

and in co-operation with the army of the League, under his rival Tilly, he fought a successful campaign against Count Mansfield and Bethlen Gabor. He conducted a second memorable campaign against the Danes in the following year, negotiated the Peace of Lübeck, and was invested with the duchy of Mecklenburg. His enemies, jealous and profoundly irritated, not only by his success, his enormous wealth, and accumulated dignities, but also by his haughty and despotic behavior, pressed their accusations against him with so much vehemence that, in 1630, he was deprived of his command. He retired silently to his estates, just as Gustavus Adolphus was on the point of invading Germany. The victories of the great Swede and the death of Tilly left no choice for the emperor but to pray his dismissed general once more to take the command. Wallenstein, after some prudent show of reluctance, agreed to do so on condition of being absolute master of his army. Gustavus having taken up his position in an intrenched camp at Nürnberg, whose citizens enthusiastically supported him, Wallenstein intrenched himself in a strong position opposite Nürnberg, intending by a tedious blockade to wear out his strong foe. The Swedes intercepted a large convoy from Bavaria, on its way to the imperialists, captured the whole of it, and destroyed the escort. Want and pestilence afflicted both armies, and Gustavus, having been re-enforced, made an attack on Wallenstein's lines, August 24th, 1632; but, after a ten hours' action and repeated assaults, Wallenstein remained unconquered within his lines, and the Swedes had to retire. Fifteen days later the latter broke up their camp and marched toward Bavaria; Wallenstein immediately breaking up and burning his camp, and marching toward Saxony. They next met at the memorable battle of Lützen, fought in November. Gustavus fell early in the battle, but Wallenstein was defeated. The conduct of his officers was rigorously investigated, and many were punished with death. Wallenstein next marched into Silesia, then into Bavaria, carrying on negotiations with France and other courts, and evidently aiming at a high place in the empire. Fresh accusations were urged against him; his officers signed, at Pilsen, a declaration of their fidelity to him; and the emperor declared him a rebel, and ordered his capture, alive or dead. His estates were confiscated; some of his trusted officers were traitors; and on the 25th of February, 1634, the great commander was murdered in the castle of Egra. His memory has been cleared of the long-credited charge of treason against

the emperor, and it is certain that his fall was brought about by the intrigues and lies of his personal enemies. The story of Wallenstein furnished Schiller with the subject of his splendid trilogy, "Wallenstein's Camp," "The Piccolomini," and "The Death of Wallenstein," well known through Coleridge's magnificent translations.

Walpole, Sir Robert, Prime Minister of England, (1676–1745.) His natural indolence would probably have overpowered and kept down his natural abilities, had he not been a third son, and seen the necessity of labor for his bread. He was educated as one intended for the Church, and used to say of himself afterward, that had he taken orders he should have been archbishop of Canterbury instead of prime-minister. But at the age of 22 he found himself, by the death of his brothers, heir to the family estate, with a double advantage — the inheritance of an elder, and the application of a younger son. He entered parliament in 1701. In 1708 he was appointed secretary of war; in 1709, treasurer of the navy. On the dissolution of the Whig ministry, he was dismissed from all his offices, expelled the house, and committed to the Tower, on the charge of breach of trust and notorious corruption. This was looked upon as a mere party proceeding, by a majority of the people, and, on the accession of George I., the Whigs being again in the ascendant, Walpole was made paymaster of the forces, and subsequently prime-minister. In consequence of disputes with his colleagues, however, he was induced to resign in 1717. His reputation as a financier drew all eyes toward him on the occurrence of the disasters arising from the bursting of the South-Sea bubble, and Walpole was again made premier. He then held office for more than twenty years, in spite of incessant attacks from political enemies of the most splendid talents.

War, Seven Years. See Appendix, page 209.

War, Thirty Years. See Appendix, page 200.

Warwick, Richard Neville, Earl of Warwick, (1428–1471.) He was the eldest son of Richard Neville, earl of Salisbury, and having, by his marriage with Anne, daughter of the earl of Warwick, become possessor of the immense estates of the Warwick family, was created earl of Warwick. His personal character and great abilities, his enormous wealth and lavish expenditure, and his extended and important family connections made him at once the mightiest English noble of his time and the favorite of the people. The story of his life would be also that of the Wars of the Roses, in which he is the most prominent figure. A family alliance with Richard, duke of York, father of Edward IV., led him to take the side of the house of York, and his dashing courage at the battle of St. Albans, in 1455, when he led the van, chiefly decided the victory of the duke of York. He was then appointed to the important post of governor or captain of Calais, which, with a short interval, he held till his death. The war really broke out in 1459, when the Lancastrians were beaten at Bloreheath. But a few months later, victory returned to the side of Lancaster, and York had to seek a refuge in Ireland. The cause of York seemed now hopelessly lost. But, in 1460, Warwick landed with an army in Kent; was joined by large numbers, marched on London, and, on July 10th, defeated the Lancastrians at Northampton, and took Henry VI. prisoner. Queen Margaret escaped, and raised an army, with which she defeated the duke of York at Wakefield, in December, and the earl of Warwick at St. Albans, in February, 1461. But these victories were fruitless, for Warwick, joined by Edward, now duke of York, compelled the royal army to retire to the north, and occupied London, where Edward was at once proclaimed king. Warwick defeated the Lancastrians at Lowton, and was rewarded for that and other important services by various appointments and large grants of forfeited estates. But Warwick and his family did not long retain the favor of the king. Edward married, in 1464, Elizabeth Woodville, and jealousies naturally grew up between the Nevilles and her relations. Other causes probably contributed to the alienation, which was shown in 1467 by the king's depriving George Neville, archbishop of York, of the great seal, and in 1470 by the alliance of Warwick with Queen Margaret, and the marriage of her son, Prince Edward, to Anne Neville, younger daughter of the great earl. Warwick then invaded England with a fresh force, proclaimed and restored Henry VI., and, with the duke of Clarence, Edward's brother, entered London in triumph. The Nevilles were reinstated in their dignities and offices, and Warwick was appointed in addition lord high admiral. But once more the tide turned; Edward, landing in Yorkshire, in March, 1471, was joined by Clarence and the archbishop of York, and won the decisive victory of Barnet, April 14th, at which the king-maker and his brother, Lord Montague, were killed.

Wasa, House of, in Sweden. Gustavus Wasa was the son of Eric Wasa, duke of Grysholm, a descendant of the old royal family of Sweden. Having formed the project of delivering his country from the yoke of Denmark, he was seized and imprisoned by Christian I. But he escaped, and reached Dalecarlia; gradually roused the peasants against the foreign despot; took Upsala and other towns in 1521, and received the title of regent from the states. In 1523 he was proclaimed king, took Stockholm, and expelled Christian. He did not at first, however, accept the title of king, and was not crowned till 1528. In a national council, the following year, he procured the abolition of the Catholic religion in Sweden, and established Protestantism. In 1544 the kingdom was declared hereditary in his family. He was an able ruler, and exercised almost absolute authority; rendering very great services to his country, in its legislation, its manners, its education, and its commerce. At his death, in 1560, he left his country at peace, the treasury full, with a fine fleet, and the frontier towns fortified. His direct descendants ruled in Sweden until 1818, although it had become extinct in the male line, in 1632, by the death of Gustavus Adolphus. (See Genealogy, XIV.)

Washington, George, (1732–1799,) first President of the United States of America. He served his first campaign against the French, in 1754. During the contests which arose between the colonies and the parent state, Washington firmly opposed the right of taxation claimed by the latter. He was a member of the first congress in 1774, and in the following year was named commander-in-chief of the continental army. His first task was the reorganization of the army, the difficulty of which was seriously increased by the want of discipline, the unfriendliness of the officers, and the interference of the civil powers. The first important operation undertaken was the fortifying of Dorchester Heights, near Boston, in 1776, which led to the evacuation of the city by the British, who, however, soon gained possession of New York. In 1777 the battles of Brandywine and Germantown were fought, and the Americans were defeated in both. In 1778 an alliance was formed with the French, and Philadelphia was evacuated by the British. In 1781 a mutiny broke out in the American army, which was promptly quelled. In the autumn of that year a joint attack was made on Yorktown, then held by the British under Lord Cornwallis, by the American and French armies. It was completely successful; Cornwallis being compelled to capitulate. The struggle was virtually at an end. In 1783 the British evacuated New York, peace was signed, and the independence of the States acknowledged. Washington resigned his commission, and received the warmest acknowledgment from congress of the great services he had rendered to his country. After several years of retirement—full, however, of activity, not for private ends alone—Washington was elected, in 1789, first President of the United States. To this high office he was re-elected in 1793, and was succeeded by John Adams in 1797. He took leave of the nation in a proclamation worthy of him, and died in December, 1799. He was tall and of noble and graceful bearing; a man of singular good sense (which it has been said was his genius) and of consummate prudence; above all, true, inflexibly just, and absolutely brave. He was a man of action, not of words, and his success was as perfect as his task was singular and difficult. No example is to be found of a purer, more unselfish devotion to the service of one's country than that furnished by the career of Washington.

Webster, Daniel, (1782–1852,) one of the greatest statesmen and orators of the United States. After finishing his legal studies, he was admitted to practice in 1805; and in 1806 he settled at Boston. His professional fame increased rapidly; and soon he held the first rank both in the Massachusetts courts and in the supreme court of the United States. Many of his forensic arguments have been published, and have attracted much praise for the subtlety and closeness of reasoning and the great extent of legal learning which they display. But it is as a statesman that Daniel Webster won his chief celebrity. He took his seat in Congress in 1813, and from that time till his death he was prominently before the world as one of the mightiest leaders of the Whigs. When he was first elected to congress, war was raging between America and England, and Webster at once attracted attention by his fervent eloquence in urging his countrymen to attack England by sea, and also by the historical knowledge and full acquaintance with international law which he displayed in the debates respecting the communication between America and France as to the Berlin and Milan decrees. Probably his personal advantages did much to insure his succe- as an orator. His figure was commanding; his countenance wa-

able even in repose, but when animated by the excitement of debate it "spake no less audibly than his words." His gestures were vehement, without being undignified; and his voice was unrivalled in power, in clearness, and in modulated variety of tone. On various occasions he was an unsuccessful candidate for the presidency. In 1841 he became secretary of state under President Harrison; and during this administration he settled with Lord Ashburton the great question of the "Boundary Line," which had more than once threatened to embroil England and the United States. In 1850, on the accession of President Fillmore, he again became secretary of state, in which office he remained till his death. In 1852 he again became a candidate for the presidency; and, to gain the favor of the Southern States, he abandoned the opinions he had long maintained on the question of slavery, though in this case his sacrifice of principle was in vain; and it is conjectured that disappointment hastened his end.

Wellington, Arthur Wellesley, Duke of, (1769–1852,) the famous British commander and statesman, the conqueror of Napoleon. He entered the army before he was 18, and gained his first laurels in India. His military genius was first fully established by the great battle of Assaye, (1803,) which broke forever the Mahratta power in India. The chief theatre of his glory, however, was Spain, whither he was sent in 1809 to assist the Spaniards against the French. On the 28th of July, 1809, he gained the great battle of Talavera, the first of a series of brilliant victories crowned by the decisive battle of Vittoria, which completed the expulsion of the French from the Peninsula. On the return of Napoleon from Elba, Wellington was appointed commander-in-chief of the allied forces. Fortune was once more with him, and he gained his crowning victory at Waterloo, (June 18th, 1815,) which changed the destinies of Europe, and hurled Napoleon from his throne to a prison and an early grave. It was not till some time after this that Wellington took any prominent part in the internal politics of Great Britain. In 1828 he was made prime-minister, in which position he lost his popularity by his violent opposition to the Reform Bill. He had to resign in 1830. He was not only hooted at in the streets, but even personally attacked. The popular demand having been complied with, the general excitement abated, and in 1834 he was again placed for a short time at the head of the administration. In 1841 he became a member of Peel's cabinet, and supported that able statesman through all his plans of commercial reform. Meanwhile, years came on apace. Still "the Duke" appeared regularly in his place in the House of Lords, and took part in every discussion of importance. In his 88th year, hardly three months before his death, he delivered his last speech in parliament. It has been truly said that he knew no dotage.

Wesley, John, (1703–1791,) founder of Wesleyan Methodism. In 1730, while at Oxford University, he and his brother, with a few other students, formed themselves into a society for the purpose of mutual edification in religious exercises. So singular an association excited considerable notice, and among other nicknames bestowed upon the members, that of *Methodists* was applied to them. Wesley, with some others, chiefly Moravians, went to Georgia, in America, in 1735, with a view of converting the Indians. After a stay there of two years, he was compelled to leave the country in consequence of a love affair. He therefore returned to England. In the following year he commenced itinerant preaching, and gathered many followers. Wesley was indefatigable in his labors. His society, though consisting of many thousands, was well organized, and he preserved his influence over it to the last. In Wesley's countenance mildness and gravity were blended, and in old age he appeared extremely venerable; in manners he was social, polite, and conversible; in the pulpit he was fluent, clear, and argumentative.

Westphalia, Peace of, (1648 A. D.) The Thirty Years War was terminated by the peace of Westphalia, on the 24th of October, 1648, after negotiations which had lasted between four and five years. The objects of this peace may be divided into two heads: the settlement of the affairs of the empire, and the satisfaction of the two crowns of France and Sweden. With regard to Germany, a general amnesty was granted; and all princes and persons were restored to their rights, possessions, and dignities. But the most important article of the treaty was that by which the various princes and states of Germany were permitted to contract defensive alliances among themselves, or with foreigners, provided they were not against the emperor, or the public peace of the empire—conditions easily evaded. By this article, the federative system was consolidated, and everything was referred to the footing on which it stood in the year 1624, hence

called the decretory or normal year. The independence of the Swiss cantons was recognized, and the empire tacitly abandoned the Netherlands, nor made any provision for the free navigation of the Rhine. France and Sweden, besides raising up a counterpoise to the power of the emperor in Germany itself, had succeeded in aggrandizing themselves at the expense of the empire. Sweden, indeed, in the course of a few years was to lose her acquisitions; but France had at last permanently seated herself on the Rhine; the House of Austria lost the preponderance it had enjoyed since the time of Charles V., which was now to be transferred to her rival, and during the ensuing period France became the leading European power—a post which she mainly owed to the genius and policy of Cardinal Richelieu. With the peace of Westphalia begins a new era in the policy and public law of Europe.

William I., the Conqueror, (1027–1087,) King of England, was the son of Robert, duke of Normandy, and succeeded to the duchy at the age of eight. On the death of Edward the Confessor, king of England, William made a formal claim to the crown, alleging a bequest in his favor by Edward, and a promise which he had extorted from Harold. His claim being denied, he at once prepared for an invasion of England; effected a landing at Pevensey, September 28th, 1066, while Harold was engaged in opposing the Norwegians in the north, and fortified a camp near Hastings. The decisive battle of Hastings was fought October 14th, 1066; Harold was defeated and slain, and the Norman conquest was commenced. William's rival, Edgar Atheling, was supported by some of the leading men for a short time, but they all made submission to William at Berkhampstead, and on the following Christmas-day he was crowned at Westminster. The first measures of the new king were conciliatory, but served merely as a show for a short time. The inevitable conflict was not long deferred. Early in 1067, William went to Normandy. Tidings of revolt recalled him, and he was occupied through most of his reign in the conquest of the country. Of the military events the most terribly memorable is his campaign in the north in 1069, when he mercilessly devastated the whole district beyond the Humber with fire and slaughter, so that from York to Durham not an inhabitated village remained, and the ground for more than sixty miles lay bare and uncultivated for more than half a century afterward. The order established was that of death; famine and pestilence completing what the sword had begun. The settlement of the country was as cruel as the conquest. The English were dispossessed of their estates, and of all offices both in church and state; William assumed the feudal proprietorship of all the lands, and distributed them among his followers, carrying the feudal system out to its fullest development; garrisoned the chief towns, and built numerous fortresses; and converted many districts of the country into deer-parks and forests. The most extensive of these was the New Forest in Hampshire, formed in 1079. He ordered a complete survey of the land in 1085, the particulars of which were carefully recorded, and have come down to us in the "Domesday Book." The attempt was made to supersede the English by the Norman-French language, which was for some time used in official documents. In his latter years, William was engaged in war with his own sons, and with the king of France; and in August, 1087, he burnt the town of Mantes. Injured by the stumbling of his horse among the burning ruins, he was carried to Rouen, and died in the abbey of St. Gervias, 9th of September.

William the Silent, (1533–1584,) Prince of Orange, founder of the Dutch Republic. William possessed, in the county of Burgundy, the extensive estates of Chalons; and in Flanders, those by which the ancient house of Orange had been rewarded for its services to the dukes of Burgundy; at the same time he was royal stadtholder (for Philip II.) in the provinces of Holland, Zealand, and Utrecht. He appeared, in declaring himself on the side of the national rights, to hazard in every respect more than he could hope to gain; especially if we consider the irresolution, the dissensions, and the inconsiderable resources of the multitude, and the jealousy of their leaders. William was not one of those enthusiastic heroes who inflame a people for the establishment of independence; he possessed by no means an impassioned character, but, on the contrary, an unruffled tranquillity of mind, a cool understanding, and a native perception of right, which he maintained with great perseverance. As his only object was the public good, and as he sacrificed his own interests to those of Holland, he succeeded in uniting the different parties in pursuit of one object—independence. By his capacity and his virtues he acquired their confidence; and he was now equally inaccessible to the temptations and to the

menaces of the court. He was neither dismayed by the sword of Alva nor deceived by the arts of Requesens, nor perplexed by the boldness or by the artifices of Don Juan of Austria. When Philip II. committed the task of reducing this country to obedience to Alexander Farnese, (see Parma,) William found means to frustrate both his power and his military talents. The prince at length succeeded, by means of the compact concluded at Utrecht, (1579,) in uniting seven provinces of opposite constitution and circumstances, in one republic. The constitution of the United Netherlands was simply that of a league for mutual defence against all enemies whatsoever, and as this is necessarily a lasting cause of union, so the confederacy was declared to be permanent. Before the new republic was securely settled, the prince of Orange fell by assassination, (1584.) Though born to great possessions, he left behind him nothing but debts, as he had endeavored to secure no other fortunes for his sons than such as they might acquire for themselves by their virtue and abilities. (See Motley's "Rise of the Dutch Republic.")

William III., (1650–1702,) King of England, was the son of William II., Prince of Orange, by his wife Mary, daughter of Charles I. (See Genealogy, I.) In 1672, during the serious peril of the republic from the aggressions of Louis XIV., he was installed in the office of stadtholder. Though only 22 years of age, he showed himself the worthy descendant of William the Silent, founder of the republic; and in two campaigns drove the French out of the Dutch territory. In 1677, William had married Mary, daughter of James, duke of York, afterward James II., and this alliance gave him far greater importance as head of the league subsequently formed against France, and as leader of the Protestants of Europe. When the arbitrary measures of James II. became intolerable to his subjects, the hopes of the friends of freedom naturally turned to William, and he accepted the call sent him to come and save their rights and liberties. He landed at Torbay, 5th November, 1688; arrived in London in December; and by the convention, assembled in January, 1689, the crown was offered to William and Mary, and was accepted by them. Resistance was made in Scotland, but ended with the defeat of Dundee at Killiecrankie; while a more serious conflict raged in Ireland, in which James II. and William personally took part, and which was closed by the victory of the latter at the Boyne. The principal aim of the king thenceforth was to humble France, and he spent much of his time abroad, engaged as leader of the army of the confederates. In 1697 he was recognized (by the Peace of Ryswick) as king of England. Three years before he had lost his queen, a great personal sorrow, but the throne was secured to him by the provisions of the Bill of Rights. He was, however, very unpopular with his subjects, and hostile intrigues, conspiracies, and projects of assassination troubled his reign. Whigs, Tories, and Jacobites alike distrusted him. He continued to take an active part in the affairs of Europe, and especially in the negotiation of the famous Partition Treaties for the disposal of the dominions of the Spanish king. He was provoked to prepare a new war against France by the recognition by Louis XIV. of the son of James II. as king, but this project was set aside by his death. The reign of William III. forms one of the great epochs of the Constitutional History of England — the Revolution; the main feature of which is the final recognition by law of those great principles of regulated liberty for which the statesmen and heroes of the Commonwealth had contended. The character of William has been both extravagantly lauded and passionately depreciated. His taciturn cold manner, his preference for his foreign friends, and the way in which he stood aloof from both the political parties, naturally excited prejudice and ill-will against him. But it is not possible to doubt his great intellectual and moral qualities, clear-sightedness, courage, decisiveness, and indomitable energy and persistency of purpose. One dark stain on his character is ineffaceable: he distinctly sanctioned the atrocious massacre of Glencoe, devised by the master of Stair. William III. died at Kensington Palace, in consequence of a fall from his horse, 8th of March, 1702, and was buried at Westminster Abbey.

Wordsworth, William, (1770–1850,) the English poet, who was born and lived the greater part of his life among the lakes in Cumberland and Westmoreland. Southey's subsequent retirement to the same beautiful country, and Coleridge's visits to his brother poets, originated the name of the "Lake School of Poetry" by which the opponents of their principle distinguished the three poets, whose names are so intimately connected. This principle was *that the real or natural language of any and every mind, when simply in a state of excitement or passion, is necessarily poetical.* We cannot say that

Wordsworth's theory of poetry has been altogether without effect upon his practice, but it has shown itself rather by some deficiency of refinement in his general manner, than by very much that he has written in express conformity with its requisitions. We might affirm, indeed, that its principle is as much contradicted and confuted by the greater part of his own poetry as it is by that of all languages and all times in which poetry has been written, or by the universal past experience of mankind in every age and country. Wordsworth is a great poet, and has enriched our literature with much beautiful and noble writing, whatever be the method or principle upon which he constructs, or fancies that he constructs his compositions. His "Laodamia," his "Lonely Leech-gatherer," his "Ruth," his "Tintern Abbey," his "Feast of Brougham," the "Water-Lily," the greater part of the "Excursion," most of the Sonnets, and many of his shorter lyrical pieces are nearly as unexceptionable in diction as they are deep and true in feeling, judged according to any rules or principles of art that are now recognized by the critics. It is part, and a great part, of what the literature of Germany has done for our literature within the last 60 years, that it has given a wider scope and a deeper insight to our perception and mode of judging of the poetical in all its forms and manifestations; and the poetry of Wordsworth has materially aided in establishing this revolution of taste and critical doctrine, by furnishing the English reader with some of the earliest and many of the most successful or most generally appreciated examples and illustrations of the precepts of the new faith. His noble autobiographical poem, "The Prelude," or the "Growth of the Poet's Mind," was a posthumous publication. His nephew, Canon Wordsworth, published the "Memoirs of Wordsworth."

Worcester, Edward Somerset, Marquis of, (1601–1667,) distinguished as the inventor of the steam-engine. He spent some years in foreign travel, then gave himself up to his favorite mathematical and mechanical studies, and in 1641 entered into the service of Charles I. In 1650 he drew up his famous "Century of Inventions," which was first printed in 1663. Among them is that for which he is deservedly remembered, "an admirable and most forcible way to drive up water by fire;" which was in fact a steam-engine. Although it was seen by eminent persons, the invention seems to have been little thought of, and the inventor was equally slighted. He spent a large sum of money on the erection of his great water-works at Vauxhall, and died in April, 1667. His character, abilities, and inventions have been admirably illustrated by Dicks, in his work entitled "The Life, Times, and Scientific Labors of the Second Marquis of Worcester." It includes a reprint of the "Century of Inventions."

Wolsey, Thomas, (1471–1530,) Cardinal Archbishop of York, and minister of state under Henry VIII., was the son of a butcher at Ipswich. After finishing his education at Oxford, he became tutor to the sons of the marquis of Dorset; was subsequently domestic chaplain to the archbishop of Canterbury; and, on going to court, he gained the favor of Henry VII., who sent him on an embassy to the emperor, and on his return made him dean of Lincoln. In 1514 he was advanced to the see of Lincoln, and the year following to the archbishopric of York. Insatiable in the pursuit of emolument, he obtained the administration of the see of Bath and Wells, and the temporalities of the abbey of St. Alban's, soon after which he enjoyed in succession the rich bishoprics of Durham and Winchester. By these means his revenues nearly equalled those of the crown, part of which he expended in pomp and ostentation, and part in laudable munificence for the advancement of learning. He founded several lectures at Oxford, where he also erected the college of Christ Church, and built a palace at Hampton Court, which he presented to the king. He was at this time in the zenith of power, and had a complete ascendency over the mind of Henry, who made him lord chancellor, and obtained for him a cardinalship. He was also nominated the Pope's legate; and aspired to the chair of St. Peter. In this he failed, and a few years later he lost all the power and possessions he had gained. His advice in the matter of the king's divorce from Queen Katharine, the ruinous taxation he had imposed, and the enmity of some powerful persons, combined for his overthrow. He was deprived of everything, and sent to live in retirement. Although the king restored him to some of his offices soon after, and he returned to his see of York, a charge of treason was brought against him. In 1530 he was apprehended at York, but was taken ill, and died at Leicester on his way to London, exclaiming, "Had I but served my God as faithfully as I have served my king, he would not have given me over in my gray hairs." An account of his life was written by his gentleman-usher,

George Cavendish, portions of which are appended to Galt's "Life of Wolsey."

Wyckliffe, John, (1324–1384,) was a learned ecclesiastic and professor of theology in Baliol College, Oxford, where, soon after the year 1372, he began to challenge certain doctrines of the Church. In contending against these, and also against the worldly life of many of the prelates, he produced many controversial works, some of which were in English. But his greatest work was a translation of the Old and New Testaments, which he executed in his latter years, with the assistance of a few friends, and which, though taken from the Latin medium, instead of the original Hebrew and Greek, and though performed in a timid spirit with regard to idioms, is a valuable relic of the age, both in a literary and a theological view. Wyckliffe was several times cited for heresy and brought into great personal danger; but partly through accidental circumstances, and partly through the friendship of the duke of Lancaster, he escaped every danger, and at last died in a quiet country parsonage. There is a good Life of Wyckliffe by Dr. Robert Vaughan.

X.

Xenophon, the amiable pupil and biographer of Socrates, continued the Greek history from the period where the narrative of Thucydides terminates. In a short outline he has preserved to future times the course of events, from the sea-fight near the Arginusæ (406 B. C.) to the battle of Mantinea, (362 B. C.) We have also from him a biographical memoir of the Spartan king Agesilaus, an analysis of the Lacedæmonian and Athenian constitutions, and an account of the retreat of the 10,000 Greeks. (See Anabasis.) His style is not less lively, and still more simple than that of Herodotus. The only ornament of both is the refined moral feeling which pervades their writings. Xenophon affords an excellent model of perspicuity in narration. His piety and his love of justice so win the hearts of his readers, that they forgive him when he puts his philosophy even into the mouths of barbarous chieftains, whose thoughts were never so perspicuously arranged. His work was completed in advanced age, and some parts of it may therefore want the last polish. The good reception which he found at Sparta, when the turbulent democrats of Athens had driven him into exile, gave him a particular attachment to the former commonwealth, which philosophers were generally inclined to regard with esteem.

I. INTRODUCTION.

1. THE CRADLE OF THE HUMAN RACE.

THE cradle of our race was in Asia. It arose in that region which extends southward as far as the 40th degree of north latitude. On the north, this district was bounded by what was then the open North Sea, with the Ural as an island; on the east, it was surrounded by the Altai and the Chinese Himalaya; on the south by the chain of the Paropamisus, extending from Asia Minor to Eastern Asia; and on the west by the Caucasus and Ararat. We have, therefore, a primeval country, containing on an average 11 degrees of latitude and 40 degrees of longitude. In this garden of delight, (Eden,) with its four streams, the Euphrates and Tigris on the west, the Oxus and Jaxartes on the east, mankind spent its infancy.

2. THE HUMAN RACE AND ITS DIVISIONS.

The one great barrier between man and the brute is language. It is the natural, the spontaneous, the inevitable result of man's organization. Originally, "the whole earth was of one language and of one speech." At this stage, of which the old Chinese is the deposit, there prevailed a grand simplicity in the expression of the external phenomena. Every syllable was a word, that is, a sentence: the judgment of man about external objects, according to their properties, represented artistically, in a musical and an architectonical shape. The natural accompaniment of this language was universal gesticulation, and afterward picture-writing, the portrayal, not of sounds, but of the objects.

This stream of undivided speech divided itself into three mighty arms:

The Turanian; 2, the Semitic; and 3, the Aryan.

1. The name Turanian is used in opposition to Aryan, and is applied to the languages spoken by the nomadic races of Asia. These nomadic or Turanian races are opposed to the agricultural or Aryan races.

2. The Semitic speech is the common mother of the languages spoken by the Syrian, Israelite, and Arabic nations. Hence they are called collectively the Semitic race.

3. The Aryan speech is the common mother of the Indian, Persian, and European languages. It was originally spoken by a small tribe settled probably on the highest elevation of Central Asia. Those men were the true ancestors of our race. We are by nature Aryan, not Semitic. A deep sense of diversity has always severed and still severs the Aryan from the Semitic nations.

3. THE HISTORICAL RACES.

The civilization of the human race is principally due to two great families of nations: the Semitic and the Aryan. They occupy the four western peninsulas of the Ancient World. They are: 1. India with Persia; 2. Arabia; 3. Asia Minor; and 4. Europe. Both races once spoke the same language, which we may call the Semitico-Aryan, the language of primitive Asia. During this Semitico-Aryan period, some settlers migrated from Asia into the lower part of the Nile valley. They were the ancestors of the Egyptians, whose language and religion retained to the last, vestiges of the original identity of the Semitic and Aryan races. All historical nations are either Aryan or Semitic, except Egypt, the oldest of all.

4. THE OLDEST HISTORICAL NATION.

The real history of a nation never recedes much farther back than its oldest contemporaneous authorities. For nations only obtain historical consciousness and historical experience when they begin to produce monuments, especially written monuments, to bear witness to posterity of what is occurring. Monuments form the dial-plate of history; until they exist, the present alone belongs to a nation, not the past—it exists without a history. It is in this that exists the claim of priority of the history of Egypt above all other histories. In Egypt we have the earliest contemporaneous authorities, and that the most direct, which exist; namely, monumental authorities. History begins with Egypt.

THE EASTERN WORLD.

EGYPT.

Egyptian history subdivides itself into three comprehensive periods:

I. **The Old Empire**, which ended about 2100 B. C. (Dynasties I.–XIII.)

It is divided into three subdivisions:

A. *The Empire of the Pyramids.* The greater part of the pyramids were erected during this period, (before 2500 B. C.,) which marks the culminating point of the Old Empire. (Dynasties I.–IV.)

B. *The Empire of the Obelisks.* The oldest obelisks belong to this period, which mark the decline of the Old Empire. (Dynasties V.–XI.) These obelisks were pillars formed of a single block of granite, square at the base, and terminating in a point. Their height differed from 50 to 180 feet, with a base from 5 to 25 feet.

C. *The Empire of the Sesortasens*, (about 2250.) It is as remarkable from its sudden rise as its speedy downfall. (Dynasties XII.–XIII.) The largest and most splendid edifice and the most useful work in Egypt, the Labyrinth and Lake Moeris, were executed during this period. The invasion of the Shepherds, about 2100 B. C., coincides with its close.

II. **The Middle Empire**, (2090-1580 B. C.,) a period of 511 years, during which Egypt was tributary to the Hyksos or Shepherd kings. No great historical monuments exist of this period.

III. **The New Empire**, (1580–525 B. C.,) comprising Dynasties XVIII.–XXVI. The deliverance of Egypt from the Hyksos had proceeded from Upper Egypt.

Thebes had been the centre of the resistance against the invaders. A Theban king (Amosis) drove them finally from Egypt. The whole of the country was then united under one king, who justly claimed the title of lord of the "two regions," that is, of Upper and Lower Egypt. Thebes remained their residence. It is divided into four divisions:

A. The Egyptian ascendency in Western Asia, (1500–1200.) The Pharaohs of this period (Dynasties XVIII.–XXI.) are not buried in the Pyramids, but in the Necropolis of Thebes. The most remarkable kings belong to the 19th dynasty, which began with Rameses I., whose son Sethos and grandson Rameses II. were employed during their long reigns in extending the conquests of Egypt and in recording them on the numerous and splendid monuments they erected in every part of the country. The reign of Rameses II. is especially remarkable. It lasted 66 years. He inherited from his father a mighty empire and an army accustomed to fight and to conquer. With it he subdued Nubia, Mesopotamia, and Palestine, but he left behind him an exhausted and debilitated kingdom. The greatness of this Pharaoh then must depend upon his edifices. These certainly are marvellous. It was, above all, in the two great capitals of his empire, in Memphis and in Thebes, that the monumental splendor of Rameses struck the observers of antiquity. His principal building is the great house of Rameses, (Ramesseum,) on the western side of Thebes. It was formerly known as the Memnonium. Here it was that Rameses erected the largest of all the colossi, the sitting figure of himself, about 40 feet high from the seat. The structures of Karnac, which contained among them the first temple of the Egyptian Empire, date also from his reign.

B. The decline and fall of the Egyptian ascendency, (1200–1000 B. C.) The sceptre finally passed into the hands of warlike high-priests, who gained the throne through the influence of Assyrian conquerors. These invaders restricted the powers of the Pharaohs more and more within the limits of the sacerdotal office and their sovereignty to the district of Tan (Tanis, Zoan) in N. E. Egypt.

C. The restoration of the Egyptian ascendency, (1000–650 B. C.) Sheshonk, prince of Bubastis, in Lower Egypt, was a great conquering warrior, who threw off the Assyrian yoke, and extended Egyptian influence through southwestern Asia. He ransacked Jerusalem in the 5th year of Rehoboam, and when he made an addition to the palace at Thebes, he set up the genuine Jewish figure of the subjugated kingdom of Judah. Under his successors great changes were beginning in Asia. The powerful kingdom of Assyria was already preparing to supplant the rule of the Egyptians in Syria. Before they had succeeded in this, Egypt itself had succumbed to southern conquerors, who succeeded to the inheritance of the Sheshonks. After a bloody struggle, Sabaco, the Ethiopian, became king of Egypt, (715 B. C.) His successor Tirhako re-established Egyptian rule in Asia. Napata, in Nubia, was his capital.

D. The transition period and final fall of the national Egyptian Empire, (650–525 B. C.) The marriage of Psammetichus with an Ethiopian princess resulted in the restoration of the native Egyptian line of Saite kings in his person. This restoration had, however, been effected by means of Greek mercenaries, who continued to guard the new ruler and his empire. This excited the jealousy of the native troops, who withdrew into Ethiopia and settled beyond Meroe.

During this period, Egypt witnessed a revival of its ancient prosperity, and began once more to aspire to the possession of Syria. The taking of the strong town of Ashdod gave Psammetichus a firm footing. His successor Necho conquered the whole of Syria. Josiah, king of Judah, wishing to ingratiate himself with the Babylonians, ventured to oppose him in the valley of Megiddo, but in vain. Pressing forward to the Euphrates, he attacked and took Carchemish, which guarded the passage of the river. The whole of Syria submitted to him, and for three years he remained in the undisturbed possession of his conquests. Then the Babylonians began to bestir themselves, and the Egyptians were driven forever out of Asia. Under Necho's grandson, Apries, the Babylonians conquered Egypt itself. The race of Psammetichus was destroyed, (570 B. C.,) and Amasis, a Babylonian dependant, raised to the throne of the Pharaohs. After Babylonia had been absorbed by the Persian monarchy, Egypt had to submit to the same fate. Amasis was succeeded by his son Psammenitus, whose reign was cut short by the conquest of Cambyses, in 525 B. C.

This put an end to the New Empire of Egypt, which had been nothing but an abortive attempt at a real restoration of national life. In reviewing it, we see that it exercises a controlling influence on the affairs of the world only intermittently, and the most brilliant conquests are often immediately succeeded by the deepest degradation. We feel that everything depends on the reigning individual: popular life is only exhibited in a state of suffering or in mere mockery, often simply as a negation.

THE THREE EMPIRES IN THE VALLEY OF THE EUPHRATES AND TIGRIS.

I. Chaldæa.

The Chaldæan monarchy is rather curious from its antiquity than illustrious from its great names or admirable for the extent of its dominions.

Less ancient than the Egyptian, it claims the advantage of priority over every empire which has grown up upon the soil of Asia, and it stands forth as the great parent of Asiatic civilization. The great men of this empire are three:

1. Nimrod, the founder, the mighty hunter before the Lord.
2. Urukh, the architect, the mighty temple-builder.
3. Chedor-laomer, the soldier, the mighty conqueror, who, nearly 20 centuries before our era, marched an army a distance of 1,200 miles, from the shores of the Persian gulf to the Dead sea, and held Palestine and Syria in subjection for 12 years.

He is the forerunner of all those great Oriental conquerors who from time to

time have built up vast empires in Asia, which have in a larger or a shorter space successively crumbled to decay.

The downfall of the Chaldæan Empire seems to have been the result of a great invasion by Arabs, after it had lasted above 7 centuries.

II. Assyria.

The independent kingdom of Assyria covered a space of at least a thousand years; but the empire can only at the utmost be considered to have lasted six centuries and a half, (1270–625 B. C.,) and the Assyrian ascendency in Western Asia 5 centuries, (1150–650 B. C.)

The limits of the dominion varied considerably within these 5 centuries, the empire expanding or contracting according to the circumstances of the time and the personal character of its ruler. The extreme extent appears not to have been reached until almost immediately before the last rapid decline set in, the widest dominion belonging to the time of Asshur-bani-pal, (about 666 B. C.,) the conqueror of Egypt, of Susiana, and of the Armenians. At that time Assyria was paramount over the portion of western Asia included between the Mediterranean and the Halys on the one hand, the Caspian sea and the great Persian desert on the other. The southern boundary was the desert and the Persian gulf. The northern boundary of Armenia was its utmost northern limit. Assyrian authority was at that time also acknowledged by Egypt.

To prevent rebellion in this extended territory, wholesale deportation of the inhabitants was resorted to. In the most flourishing period of their dominion — the reigns of Sargon, Sennacherib, and Esarhaddon, (721–667,) — it prevailed most widely and was carried to the greatest extent. Chaldæans were transported into Armenia; Israelites into Assyria and Media; Arabians, Babylonians, Susianians, and Persians into Palestine. Thus, rebellion was in some measure kept down, and the position of the sovereign state was rendered so far more secure; but this security was gained by a great sacrifice of strength, and when foreign invasion came, the subject kingdoms, weakened at once and alienated by the treatment which they had received, were found to have neither the will nor the power to give any effectual aid to their enslaver.

In 625, Assyria was simultaneously attacked by the Medes from the east and the Susianians from the south, the Median king Cyaxares directing the movements of both. To meet this double danger, Saracus, the Assyrian king, determined on dividing his forces; and while he intrusted a portion of them to Nabopolassar, to defend the south, he himself made ready to receive the Medes. But Nabopolassar saw in his sovereign's difficulty his own opportunity, and, instead of marching against the enemy, he secretly negotiated an arrangement with Cyaxares, agreed to become his ally, and obtained the Median king's daughter as a bride for Nebuchadnezzar, his eldest son. Cyaxares and Nabopolassar then joined their efforts against Nineveh, and Saracus, unable to resist them, took counsel of his despair, and, after all means of resistance were exhausted, burned himself in his palace, (625.) The conquerors divided the empire between them.

III. Babylonia.

The history of the Babylonian Empire commences with Nabopolassar, who mounted the throne in 625 B. C., and ruled 21 years. Babylon enjoyed her new position at the head of an empire too much to endanger it by aggression, and her peaceful attitude provoking no hostility, she was for a while left unmolested by her neighbors. Media could be relied upon as a firm friend; Persia was too weak, Lydia too remote to be formidable. In Egypt alone was there a combination of hostile feeling with military ardor such as might have been expected to lead speedily to a trial of strength. But while Psammetichus lived, Babylon had little to fear; he being an aged and wary prince, whose years forbade his engaging in any distant enterprise. Psammetichus died in 610 B. C., and was succeeded by his son Necho, who was in the prime of life, and who in disposition was bold and enterprising. He crossed his frontier and invaded the territories of Nabopolassar, (608 B. C.,) and established his dominion over the whole tract between Egypt and the Euphrates. Necho enjoyed his conquests for the space of at least three full years. At length, (605 B. C.,) Nabopolassar resolved to intrust his forces to Nebuchadnezzar, his son, and to send him to contend with the Egyptians. He rapidly recovered the lost territory, (battle of Carchemish, on the left bank of the Euphrates,) recovered the old frontier line, and pressed on into Egypt itself. But his father's death compelled him to pause, to conclude a hasty arrangement with Necho, and to return to his capital. This Nebuchadnezzar is the great monarch of the Babylonian Empire, which, lasting only 88 years, (625–538 B. C.,) was for nearly half the time under his sway. This great monarch, who had already recovered Syria, crushed rebellion in Judæa, took Tyre, and humiliated Egypt. These victories were not without an effect on his home administration, and on the construction of the vast works with which his name is inseparably associated. He adopted the Assyrian system of forcibly removing the whole population of a conquered country. Crowds of captives were settled in various parts of Mesopotamia, and it seems to have been chiefly by their exertions that the magnificent series of great works was accomplished which formed the special glory of the Babylonian Empire, (the wall of Babylon, the hanging gardens, many canals, palaces, temples, etc.) The most remarkable circumstance in Nebuchadnezzar's life was his lycanthropy, which consists in the belief that one is not a man, but a beast. The great king became during seven years a wretched maniac; then suddenly the king's intellect returned to him, and his last days were as brilliant as his first. He died 561 B. C. Five years afterward the power passed from the house of Nabopolassar, which had held the throne for 70 years. The last king of the Babylonian Empire was the usurper Nabonadius, who, (558 B. C.,) after the fall of Babel, surrended himself and his empire to Cyrus, who incorporated Babylonia with the Persian Empire.

THE EMPIRES ON THE PLATEAU OF IRAN.

The Median and Medo-Persian Empires.

We have seen in the Assyrian history that two considerable empires arose at the same time (625 B. C.) out of the ashes of Assyria: the Babylonian and Median. These empires were established by mutual consent; they were connected together by the ties of affinity which united their rulers. For once in the history of the world, two powerful monarchies were seen to stand side by side, not only without collision, but without jealousy or rancor. Babylonia and Media were content to share between them the empire of western Asia. To Cyaxares, the founder of the Median Empire, the conquest of Assyria did not bring a time of repose. His successes did but whet his appetite for power: he engaged in a series of wars, and subdued to himself all Asia to the east of the Halys. The advance of his western frontier to this river brought him in contact with the Lydian power, which stood at the head of a confederacy of the states of western Asia.

With a vast army drawn from various parts of inner Asia, Cyaxares invaded the territory of the western confederacy, and began his attempt at subjugation. During a conflict between the two armies an ominous darkness fell upon the combatants. The sun was eclipsed. Amid the general fear, a desire for reconciliation seized both armies. It was agreed that the two kings of Media and Lydia should swear friendship, and that, to cement the alliance, their children should intermarry.

By this peace the three great monarchies of the time — the Median, the Lydian, and the Babylonian — were placed on terms of the closest intimacy. The crown princes of the three kingdoms had become brothers. From the shores of the Ægean to those of the Persian gulf, western Asia was now ruled by interconnected dynasties, bound by treaties to respect each other's rights, and perhaps to lend each other aid in important conjunctures. After more than 5 centuries of almost constant war and ravage, after 50 years of fearful strife and convulsion, during which the old monarchy of Assyria had gone down and new empires had taken its place, this part of Asia entered upon a period of repose which stands out in strong contrast with the long term of struggle. From the date of the peace between Alyattes and Cyaxares, (610 B. C.,) for nearly half a century, the three kingdoms of Media, Lydia, and Babylonia pursued their separate courses without quarrel or collision.

Cyaxares died 593 B. C., after a reign of 40 years, leaving his crown to his son Astyages, who had neither his father's enterprise nor his ability. During a reign which lasted at least 35 years, he abstained almost wholly from military enterprises, and thus an entire generation of Medes grew up without seeing actual service, which alone makes the soldier. Cyrus, the vassal king of Persia, saw his opportunity, pressed his advantage, and established the supremacy of his nation, before the unhappy effects of Astyages's peace policy could be removed. He waited till Astyages was advanced in years, and so disqualified for command; till the veterans of Cyaxares were almost all in their graves; and till the Babylonian throne was occupied by a king who was not likely to give Astyages any aid. He was successful in bringing about the substitution of Persia for Media as the ruling power in western Asia. The fall of the Median Empire (558 B. C.) was due immediately to the genius of the Persian prince; but its ruin was prepared and its destruction was really caused by the short-sightedness of the Median monarch.

Lydia and Babylonia shared very soon the fate of the Median Empire, to which afterward, under the reign of Cambyses, were added Egypt and Ethiopia. On the ruins of those arose the Persian monarchy, the geographical extent of which was far greater than that of any one of those which had preceded it.

While Persia proper is a comparatively narrow and poor tract, extending in its greatest length less than 8 degrees, the dominions of the Persian kings covered a space 56 degrees long, and more than 20 degrees wide. The boundaries of Persia at the time of its greatest extent were — **East**: the desert of Thibet, the Sutlej, and the Indus; — **south**: the Indian sea, the Persian gulf, the Arabian and Nubian deserts; — **west**: the Greater Syrtis, the Mediterranean, the Ægean, and the Strymon river; — **north**: the Danube, the Black sea, the Caucasus, the Caspian, and the Jaxartes. Within these limits lay a territory the extent of which from east to west was little less than 3,000 miles, while its width varied between 500 and 1,500 miles. Its entire area was probably not less than 2,000,000 of square miles. (The area of the United States is more than 3,000,000 of square miles.) It was thus more than four times as large as the Assyrian Empire. For the Persian history, see CYRUS, DARIUS, and the following war tables.

THE HELLENIC WORLD.

THE SCYTHIAN EXPEDITION.

Cause. The desire of Darius of annexing *Thrace* to the Persian Empire, as a first step to embrace in his dominion the lovely isles and coasts of Greece.

But on the right flank of an army invading Thrace lay the formidable power of *Scythia*, the ancient enemy of southwestern Asia. This had to be subdued before Thrace could be conquered. Hence the Scythian expedition was no insane project of a frantic despot, but a well-concerted plan for the furtherance of a great design and the permanent advantage of his empire.

Duration. A few months, (508 B. C.)

Theatre of war. The western shore of the *Black sea* and the basin of the *Don.*

March of Darius. *Darius* collected an army of nearly 800,000 men, and a fleet of 600 ships, chiefly from the *Greeks in Asia Minor.*

He crossed the *Bosphorus*, marched through *Thrace*, crossed the *Great Balkan*, and passed the *Danube* by a bridge (which the Ionian Greeks had made) just above the apex of the Delta, and so invaded Scythia. The natives retired on his approach, endeavoring to destroy his army by depriving it of provisions. But the commissariat of the Persians was, as usual, well arranged. Darius remained for more than two months in Scythia without incurring any important losses.

Attempts had been made during his absence to induce the Greeks, who guarded the bridge over the Danube, to break it, and so hinder his return, but they were unsuccessful. (See MILTIADES.) Darius recrossed the river, and met on his return march through Thrace no opposition.

Before passing the Bosphorus he commissioned Megabazus to complete the reduction of Thrace, and assigned him for that purpose 80,000 men, who remained in Europe, while Darius and the rest of his army crossed into Asia.

THE IONIAN REVOLT.

Real cause. A national spirit had gradually grown up among the Greek cities which were scattered along the coasts of Asia Minor. The Scythian expedition had greatly developed this. Six hundred Greek ships had formed a united fleet, on the fidelity of which the fate of the whole Persian army had depended. This had made them conscious of their strength, and awakened a deep-felt desire for national independence.

Immediate cause. *Histiæus*, the Persian governor (tyrant) of Miletus, who had been rewarded with a grant of land in Thrace, having become an object of suspicion to the king, was recalled to Susa, and his son-in-law *Aristagoras* was made governor of Miletus in his room. The failure of an attempt on Naxos having rendered the security of this appointment precarious, Aristagoras persuaded the Ionians to revolt.

Duration. About six years, (500–494 B. C.)

Theatre of war. In the original revolt appear to have been included only the cities of Ionia and Æolis, but the war spread gradually over the whole of the western part of Asia Minor.

Parties. The Asiatic Greeks, (especially Ionians,) aided by Athens and Eretrea, against the Persians.

Remark. Aristagoras had sought assistance in European Greece. Repulsed from *Sparta*, he applied to *Athens*, (the mother-state of Miletus,) and to *Eretria*, (which had received valuable aid from Miletus in her great war with Chalcis.) The help he obtained was not very important. *Athens* promised 20 ships; *Eretria*, 5 ships. The whole power of the Persian Empire was against them.

Object of the war. The liberation of the Asiatic Greeks from Persian supremacy.

Result of the war. Annihilation of the Greek fleet; destruction of Miletus.

Remark. All Ionia sank into servitude. Its soft skies helped to heal the wounds of the population; the desolated places were rebuilt, but the history of Ionia closed for ever.

Campaign. Sailing to *Ephesus*, the confederates marched up the valley of the *Cayster*, crossed *Mount Tmolus*, and took the Lydian capital *Sardis* at the first onset. It caught fire during the plundering and was burnt. Aristagoras and his troops hastily retreated; but were overtaken before they could reach Ephesus, and suffered *a severe defeat from the Persians.* The expedition then broke up: the Asiatic Greeks dispersed among their cities; the Athenians and Eretrians sailed home.

Consequences. The failure of the expedition was forgotten for the glory of its one achievement, the burning of Sardis, one of the chief cities of the Great King. Everywhere along the coast of Asia Minor revolts broke out. If a great man had been at the head of the movement a successful issue might probably have been secured; but Aristagoras was unequal to the occasion; and the struggle for independence, which had promised so fair, was soon put down. After the subjection of the western coast of Asia Minor, Persia concentrated her strength upon *Miletus*, the cradle of the revolt and the acknowledged chief of the cities. A large fleet was collected in her behalf by the Ionian towns. This fleet, the combined strength of Ionia, was totally defeated in the battle of *Lade*, and soon afterward Miletus herself fell. The flames of rebellion were everywhere ruthlessly trampled out; and the power of the great king was once more firmly established over the coasts and islands of the Propontis and the Ægean sea.

One thing remained, however: *to take vengeance upon the foreigners* (Athenians and Eretrians) *who had dared to lend their aid to the king's revolted subjects, and had borne a part in the burning of Sardis.*

THE PERSIAN WARS.

Cause. The participation of the Athenians and Eretrians in the revolt of the Ionians.

Duration. About 50 years, (500–449 B. C.)

Theatre of war. The Archipelago, with the surrounding countries, especially Greece.

Object of the war. The extension of Persian supremacy over Greece.

Result of the war. The complete independence of Greece.

Number of wars. *Four:* I., under Mardonius, 492; II., under Datis and Artaphernes, in 490; III., under Xerxes, in 480. IV. The aggressive war against the Persians, 478–449.

I. First attempt in 492. Complete failure of the Persians.

Duration. Ten months.

Theatre of war. The northern shores of the Archipelago. *Mount Athos.*

Commander. *Mardonius*, son-in-law of King Darius, a young, inexperienced man.

Campaign. He marched westward from the Hellespont, through Thrace. When he had arrived at the Strymon, he ordered his fleet to sail around Mt. Athos. On this journey it suffered a terrible shipwreck, in which 300 vessels perished,

and the shores of the Strymonian bay were covered with innumerable Persian corpses. As the land army at the same time suffered greatly from the hostilities of the Thracians and the rough character of the country, Mardonius returned.

Result. It interrupted for a brief space of time (2 years) the great international struggle between Greece and Persia.

II. Second attempt in 490, and second failure of the Persians.

Duration. About six months.

Theatre of war. The Cyclades, (southern Archipelago,) Eubœa and eastern Attica.

Commanders. **Persian:** *Datis* and *Artaphernes.* **Greek:** *Miltiades.*

Campaign. The fleet sailed from the bay of Issus in a westerly direction; Naxos was sacked, but on the sacred isle of Delos a grand act of homage was performed to the divinities of the island. All the world was to perceive that the Persian king had no thought of despoiling the Hellenic national divinities of their honors; the ancient festivals uniting the two shores were to be restored with new splendor. Then they sailed to Eubœa, entered the Euripus, and displayed their forces before Eretria. Treason opened the gates: Eretria was converted into a heap of ruins and its citizens reduced to slavery. The Persians quitted the smoking ruins and crossed to the opposite shore of the channel, where the plain of Marathon opened before them.

Battle. MARATHON, (September 12th, 490.) Here the Persians were met by the Athenians, under Miltiades, and completely defeated. The Athenians lost only 192 men. Near their graves was erected a monument of victory, the first of the kind on Greek soil, and the battle-field of Marathon became a sanctuary of the country. (See MARATHON and MILTIADES.)

Result. Political and intellectual regeneration of Athens.

III. Third attempt, in 480, and third failure of the Persians.

Duration. 2 years, (480 and 479.)

Theatre of war. Greece, from the Hellespont to the Isthmus of Corinth.

Commanders. **Persian:** Xerxes, Mardonius. **Greek:** Leonidas, Eurybiades, THEMISTOCLES, Aristides, Pausanias.

First campaign. Critalla, in Cappadocia, was the gathering-place of the nations dwelling between the Indus and the Mediterranean, who, to the number of 900,000, marched from there to Sardis, where, in the autumn of 481, they went into winter quarters. Before marching farther on, three great preparatory works were undertaken and successfully completed.

I. Magazines were established on the Thracian coast.

II. The Hellespont was bridged over, (between Sestus and Abydos.)

III. The isthmus was cut through, which combines the peninsula of Athos with the mainland, so as to guard the fleet against shipwreck.

Then the army marched from Sardis through the Troad to the Hellespont, thence along the southern coast of Thrace, straight across the ridge of Chalcidice, into the corner of the Thermæan gulf. In its innermost recess both divisions of the armada (the fleet of more than 3,000 sail and the army) united. After a short rest both divisions advanced, and encountered the enemy about the same time.

Battles. **On land:** near the pass of THERMOPYLÆ, (the gate of Greece,) defended by Leonidas, who was slain with all his companions, whereupon Xerxes advanced without opposition into Attica and burned Athens, (July, 480.)

On sea: near Artemisium, where, after three naval conflicts, the Greeks were forced to retire, (July, 480.) They reassembled again at SALAMIS, where, on the 20th of September, 480, they met the Persian fleet for the fourth time. At Salamis the Greeks were completely victorious.

Result. Brilliant and incontestable as the victory had been, yet it had not in reality brought about any decisive result. The proportion between the opposing naval forces was not changed, (both had lost about one-fifth,) and the land forces of the Persians remained unhurt.

But Xerxes had lost all confidence in his troops, and his troops in him. He returned to Asia with the remainder of his fleet and the greater part of the land forces. Mardonius was left behind, with 300,000 men, to complete the conquest.

Second campaign, in 479, by Mardonius.

In the spring of 479, Mardonius marched from Thessaly southward. In July, Athens is again occupied by the Persians, who, after ravaging Attica, return to Bœotia, where they were received with open arms by the inhabitants, and Mardonius naturally already fancied himself the satrap of a country incorporated with the Persian Empire.

Battle. In September, 479, near PLATÆÆ, Mardonius is attacked by the Greeks, under Pausanias, and totally defeated.

Result. The victory of PLATÆÆ was the first decisive victory of the whole war; for Marathon and Salamis had only broken the courage of the enemy, while here his power, together with that of his allies, was annihilated. Therefore, the day of Platææ is the real day of the salvation of Hellas; the danger has passed away, and thus ends a decennium of Greek history, which far surpasses all its previous periods in events of an extraordinary nature and of momentous results.

IV. The aggressive War against the Persians.

Cause. The hatred of the Greeks against the Persians, on account of their endeavors to enslave Greece.

Duration. About 30 years, (478–449 B. C.)

Theatre of war. The islands and coasts (northern and eastern) of the Archipelago.

Object of the war. The expulsion of the Persians from Thrace, the Greek islands and the colonies of Asia Minor.

Result of the war. The Athenians become the ruling power in the Archipelago. They impose on Ionia and the island a yoke which was more invidious and not less oppressive than that of the Persians.

Commanders. **Greek:** Pausanias, Aristides, Cimon.

Battles. The double victory by sea and land on the Eurymedon, in 466, where the Persian fleet was completely annihilated by Cimon.

Persia ceases to be a maritime power.

Synchronistic Remark. SALAMIS. HIMERA.

At the same time that the Persian hosts were endeavoring to annihilate Greece, the Carthaginians (allies of the Persians) threatened with annihilation the flourishing Greek colonies in Sicily. One of the grandest political combinations simultaneously directed the Asiatic hosts against Greece and the Carthaginian hosts against Sicily, to extirpate, at a blow, liberty and civilization from the face of the earth. The victory remained with the Hellenes. The battle of SALAMIS saved and avenged Greece, and on the same day the rulers of Syracuse and Agrigentum vanquished the immense Carthaginian army at HIMERA so completely that the war against the Greek colonies in Italy was thereby terminated.

PELOPONNESIAN WAR.

Causes. 1. The increasing jealousy between Athens and Sparta, created by the transfer of the hegemony (presidency of the Greek confederacy) to Athens.
2. The discontent of the Athenian allies, who were treated as vassals by Athens. The Athenian admiral sailed annually round the Archipelago to receive the tributes and survey the general posture of affairs, and only the shadow and name of liberty remained.

Immediate causes of hostilities. Interference of Athens in the affairs of Corinth, a sovereign member of the Greek union. Corinth instigates the Peloponnesian states to declare war against Athens.

Duration. Twenty-seven years, (431–404 B. C.)

Theatre of war. Northern coasts of the eastern basin of the Mediterranean.

Object of the war. Humiliation of Athens.

Result of the war. Destruction of the Athenian sovereignty.

Parties. I. **The Athenian party** — democratic — naval power—Ionians. The greater part of the islands and coast of the Archipelago, Thessalians and Acarnanians. II. **The Spartan party** — aristocratic — land power — Dorians. The greater part of the Peloponnesus and the non-maritime states of Hellas.

Division. *Three.* I. The 10 years war; II. The Sicilian expedition; III. The Decelian war.

I. The Ten Years War.

Duration. 10 years, (431–421 B. C.)

Theatre of war. The coasts of Greece, especially of Attica and the Peloponnesus.

Character of the war. The Peloponnesians invade Attica, ravage the country, and besiege Athens. The Athenians retaliate by ravaging the coasts of the Peloponnesus. The greatest calamity of Athens was the great plague which broke out in the second year, and carried off Pericles.

Great commanders. **Athenians:** PERICLES, *Cleon.* **Spartans:** *Archidamus, Brasidas.*

Battle. Amphipolis, in 422, where the Athenians were defeated.

Result. Both generals having fallen in the engagement, a truce for 50 years was negotiated by Nicias, it being stipulated that each party should be placed in the position which it had occupied before the commencement of the war.

II. The Sicilian Expedition.

Duration. Three years, (415–413.)

Cause. The help of the Athenians was invoked by the inhabitants of Egesta, in Sicily, against Syracuse, the great Doric town of the west. Alcibiades persuaded them to grant the desired assistance.

Theatre of war. The south-eastern part of Sicily. The surroundings of Syracuse.

Object of the war. The conquest of Sicily, and the erection of a maritime empire in the eastern basin of the Mediterranean, with Athens for capital.

Result of the war. The complete destruction of the naval power of the Athenians, which was the immediate cause of their ruin.

Commanders. **Athenian:** ALCIBIADES, *Nicias, Lamachus, Demosthenes.* **Spartan:** *Gylippus.*

Battles and siege. Syracuse was besieged in vain by the Athenians, who either perished or were taken prisoners. This calamity, important in the history of the art of war, has been ably described by Thucydides in its most melancholy circumstances.

III. The Decelian War.

Duration. Ten years, (413–404 B. C.)

Cause. The resentment of Alcibiades led him to incite the Spartans to attack the Athenians, who had just lost their armies and fleets. They invaded Attica, and seized upon Decelia, whence they molested the whole territory.

Theatre of war. Attica, Northern Archipelago, the Hellespont.

Object of the war. The breaking up of the Athenian supremacy.

Result of the war. The complete humiliation of Athens. The city was dismantled, the harbors destroyed, the navy never thereafter to exceed 12 ships.

Remark. In the 75th year after the battle of Salamis, the sovereignty of Athens received this calamitous termination.

Commanders. **Athenian:** *Thrasybulus, Alcibiades,* (who was recalled,) *Conon.* **Spartan:** LYSANDER, *Callicratidas.*

Battles. The Athenians gained two naval battles, the first near *Cyzicus,* (410;) and the second near the *Arginusian islands,* (406.) But LYSANDER annihilated the Athenian fleet in 405, near ÆGOS POTAMOS, (on the Hellespont.)

Result of the defeat at Ægos Potamos. Then the enemy appeared in the Piræus: the people made a courageous resistance; and it was only the extremity of famine that forced Athens to demand peace of Sparta. The Spartans held a council of all the confederates, who, after 27 years of warfare, had destroyed the empire of Athens. On this occasion the Bœotians and Corinthians insisted that the city should be burned, and all the people sold into slavery. But Sparta resolved that she never should suffer a city to be destroyed by the hands of Greeks which had acted so noble a part in the defence of their common country. Athens ceased to be a political power, but destroyed she was not. On the contrary, the groves of the Lyceum and the Academy were the seat of a more glorious empire than the fate of arms can bestow or take away.

THE CORINTHIAN WAR.

Cause. The Persians kindled a war against the Spartans in Greece, in order to force them to withdraw from Asia, where they had been making predatory excursions under their king Agesilaus.

Duration. Seven years, (394–387.)

Theatre of war. Bœotia, the Archipelago, Asia Minor.

Parties. The confederated states of *Corinth*, *Argos*, *Athens*, *Thebes*, and *Thessaly*, AGAINST *Sparta*.

Object of the war. To break down the tyranny of Sparta.

Result of the war. Great ascendency of Sparta by land. They become the rulers of Greece.

Commanders. **Spartan:** *Lysander*, *Agesilaus*, *Antalcidas*. **Athenian:** *Conon*, *Chabrias*, *Iphicrates*.

Battles. Gained by the **Confederates:** *Haliartus*, (395,) *Cnidus*, (394.) Gained by the **Spartans:** *Coronea*, (394,) *Lechæum*, (393.)

Peace. The inglorious peace of Antalcidas, 387. The Greek cities in Asia Minor and the island of Cyprus were abandoned to the Persians. This peace was an incident of mournful import in Greek history. It inaugurated the power of Persian gold on the internal affairs of Greece.

THE WAR BETWEEN THEBES AND SPARTA.

Cause. The seizure (382) of the Cadmea of Thebes by Phœbidas, a Spartan general. It is recovered by Pelopidas and the Theban exiles, (379,) who drive out the Spartan garrison.

Duration. Sixteen years, (378–362.)

Theatre of war. Bœotia, Peloponnesus, and Thessaly.

Parties. **Thebes**, with Athens and the maritime states. **Sparta**, with the inland states.

Object of the war. The breaking of the power of Sparta.

Result of the war. General exhaustion. This war prepared the way for the Macedonian usurpation.

Commanders. **Theban:** EPAMINONDAS and *Pelopidas*. **Spartan:** *Agesilaus* and *Cleombrotus*.

Battles. Gained by the **Thebans:** LEUCTRA, (371,) *Mantinea*, (362.)

Peace. In consequence of the general exhaustion, a universal pacification was made in 361.

Remark. With Epaminondas (who had fallen at Mantinea) the influence of Bœotia was extinguished. Agesilaus, the last hero of Sparta, died soon after him. The maritime power of Athens (after a short revival about 304) had sunk again into insignificance, and the best Greek armies had suffered in the last battles an irrecoverable loss. There remained not in any of the states a citizen capable of uniting the divided republics by the pre-eminence of his moral powers.

THE WARS THAT LED TO THE MACEDONIAN SUPREMACY.

CALLED: THE SACRED WARS.

I. The Phocian War, or first Sacred War.

Cause. The hatred of the Thebans, who sought for new opportunities of quarrel with Sparta, was the real cause of the war. The Amphictyonic council at Delphi (see Dict.) had condemned the Phocians to pay a fine for having occupied the lands of Apollo. They refused to pay it, and, in conjunction with the Spartans, who also had been fined for the seizure of the Cadmea in 382, took possession of the temple of Delphi, and used its treasures to equip an army.

Duration. Nearly 10 years, (355–346 B. C.)

Theatre of the war. Central Greece, and Thessaly.

Parties. *Phocians*, *Spartans*, and the tyrants of Pheræ, (in E. Thessaly.) *Thebans*, *Locrians*, and almost all the nations of northern Greece.

Object of the war. Thebes hoped to recover its supremacy, which it had gradually lost since the death of Epaminondas.

Result of the war. Rise of the Macedonian supremacy.

Commanders. The three brothers, *Philomelus*, *Onomarchus*, and *Phayllus*, who were finally conquered by PHILIP OF MACEDON.

Peace. The Phocian cities were deprived of their walls, the inhabitants dispersed, restitution of the Delphic treasure enforced, and the two votes of the Phocians in the Amphictyonic council given to PHILIP OF MACEDON.

Remark. The treasures of Delphi, circulating in Greece, were as injurious to the country as the ravages which it underwent. A war springing out of private passions, fostered by bribes and subsidiary troops, and terminated by the interference of foreign powers, was exactly what was requisite for annihilating the scanty remains of morality and patriotism still existing in Greece.

II. The Locrian War, or second Sacred War.

Cause. PHILIP OF MACEDON causes the Amphictyons to impose a fine on the Locrians of Amphissa, and to intrust the levying of it to him. Thebes and Athens stir up Greece against him.

Duration. Two years, (339, 338.)

Theatre of war. Bœotia.

Object of the war. To free Greece from Macedonian influence.

Result of the war. The independence of Greece for ever extinguished.

Battle. CHÆRONEA, in Bœotia, in 338. The Athenians and their allies fought in a manner worthy of the last contest in defence of ancient liberty. They were defeated.

Remark. Philip was now absolute master of Greece. He was, however, very anxious, by some great exploit in harmony with the national feeling, to keep his army employed, and prevent the Greeks from reflecting on their calamity. He resolved therefore to avenge the gods, formerly insulted by Xerxes, and to inflict punishments on the successors to his throne for the contumelies he had offered

to the Greeks. In the midst of these preparations, the king was assassinated by a young man in revenge for an injury inflicted on him, (336.)

ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

I. Alexander's Great War against Persia.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT ascended the throne of Macedonia in 336. He was only 20 years old when, by the destruction of Thebes, which had rebelled, he deprived the Greeks of the hope of re-establishing their independence, (335.) He then marched from Pella and overran Asia as far as the Ganges, (334–326.)

Chronological Table of Alexander's Campaigns in Western Asia.

334. Alexander crosses the Hellespont and conquers the Persians at the GRANICUS.

333. He subdues the western and southern provinces of Asia Minor, and conquers for the second time the Persians at ISSUS.

332. He conquers Syria, Phœnicia, and Cyprus, takes Tyre, and makes himself master of Egypt, where he founds ALEXANDRIA.

331. He returns to Asia, crosses the Euphrates, and defeats the Persians for the third time at ARBELA. — Murder of Darius Codomannus, last king of the Persians, by one of his own officers, (Bessus.) Asia was indifferent concerning the name of her master, and, after the third battle and the death of the king, Persia fell prostrate before the conqueror.

II. Indian Campaign.

The north-eastern limits of the Persian Empire having been reached, *Alexander* conceived the design of making himself king of all Asia, the extreme boundaries of which were, as he supposed, at no great distance. With this view he undertook an expedition against the Indians: crossing the Indian frontier in the spring of 327, he fought his way to the *Hyphasis*, one of the rivers of the Punjâb. The increasing discontent of his soldiers forced him here to change from an eastern to a southern advance. Sailing down the Hydaspes and Indus, he arrived at the Indian ocean. From here the fleet, under Nearchus, sailed through the Persian gulf to the mouth of the Euphrates and Tigris, while Alexander himself accompanied the bulk of the army through the Iranian deserts to Babylon, which he made the capital of his empire.

THE EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER reached now from the Adriatic sea to the Indus, and from the steppes of central Asia to the Indian ocean.

III. Character of Alexander's Administration.

He protected the conquered from oppression, showed proper respect to their religion, and left the civil government in the hands of the native rulers who had hitherto possessed it.

The fundamental principle was to alter as little as possible in the internal organization of the countries.

In the midst of his labors he perished, (323,) either by poison or by intemperance, having scarcely completed his 32d year. His children being yet infants, his chief generals provided each for himself, and only thought of conciliating the greedy soldiery. His family fell a sacrifice to the ambition of his generals, who for themselves obtained no other boon than a life of perpetual alarms and a violent death

IV. Immediate Results of Alexander's Death.

For a few brief years a Greek ruler had held in his hand the whole intellectual vigor of the Hellenic race, combined with the whole material resources of the East. After his death, the work to which his life had been devoted — the establishment of Hellenism in the East — was by no means destroyed; but his empire had barely been united when it was again dismembered, and amidst the constant quarrels of the different states that were formed out of its ruins, the diffusion of Greek culture in the East was prosecuted on a reduced scale.

V. The States sprung from Alexander's Empire.

In the course of time Alexander's empire was changed into a system of Helleno-Asiatic states.

Under the protection of the Sarissæ, Greek civilization peacefully domiciled itself everywhere throughout the ancient Persia. The officers who had divided the heritage of their great commander, gradually settled their differences, and a system of states was established, consisting of:

A. 3 EMPIRES. 1. *Macedonia.* 2. *Asia.* 3. *Egypt.*

B. 8 STATES OF THE SECOND RANK, the principal among which were: 1. *Atropatene.* 2. *Galatia.* 3. *Pergamus.*

C. 3 CONFEDERACIES. 1. *The Ætolians.* 2. *The Achæans.* 3. *The Mercantile Cities.*

A. THE THREE EMPIRES.

1. Macedonia.

MACEDONIA, (capital, *Pella*,) was a military state, compact in form and with its finances in good order. *Greece* was in general dependent on it, and its towns received Macedonian garrisons; especially the three important fortresses of Demetrias in Magnesia, Chalcis in Eubœa, and Corinth on the isthmus, "*the three fetters of the Hellenes.*" But the strength of the state lay, above all, in its original domain, the province of Macedonia. Here still existed a goodly proportion of the old national vigor which once had produced the warriors of Marathon.

2. Asia, or the Empire of the Seleucidæ.

ASIA, (capital, *Seleucia*,) was nothing but Persia superficially remodelled and Hellenized; a rather loose aggregate of states in various degrees of dependence, of insubordinate satrapies, and of half-free Greek cities.

3. Egypt, or the Empire of the Ptolemies.

EGYPT, (capital, *Alexandria*,) formed a consolidated and united state, in which the intelligent state-craft of the first Ptolemies, skilfully availing itself of ancient national and religious precedent, had established an absolute government.

The rural population in Egypt was wholly passive; the capital was everything, and that capital was a dependency of the court. It was one of the peculiar advantages of Egypt, that its policy did not grasp at shadows, but pursued definite and attainable objects.

The Ptolemies never tried to found an universal empire, and never dreamt of conquering India; but by way of compensation, they drew the whole traffic between India and the Mediterranean from the Phœnician ports to ALEXANDRIA, and made Egypt the first commercial and maritime state of the world, and the mistress of the eastern Mediterranean and of its coasts and islands.

B. THE THREE PRINCIPAL STATES OF THE SECOND RANK.

1. Atropatene.

A series of small independent states, stretching from the southern end of the Caspian sea to the Hellespont, filled the whole of northern Asia Minor.

All these states were fragments of the great Persian Empire, and were ruled by Oriental, mostly old Persian, dynasties. The most characteristic among these was the remote mountain land of *Atropatene*, (to the southwest of the Caspian sea,) the true asylum of ancient Persian manners, over which even the expedition of Alexander had swept without leaving a trace.

2. Galatia.

In the interior of Asia Minor was the Celtic state of *Galatia*. There, three Celtic tribes had settled, without abandoning either their native language and manners, or their constitution and their trade as freebooters. These rude but vigorous barbarians were the terror of the effeminate surrounding nations, and even of the rulers of Asia themselves, who agreed at last to pay them tribute.

3. Pergamus.

In consequence of bold and successful measures of opposition to these Gallic hordes, *Attalus*, a wealthy citizen of *Pergamus*, received the royal title from his native city, and bequeathed it to his posterity. This new court was, in miniature, what that of Alexandria was on a grand scale. A well-filled treasury contributed greatly to the importance of these rulers of Pergamus. *Attalus*, the founder of the dynasty, was the Lorenzo de' Medici of antiquity, and remained throughout life a wealthy citizen. The family life of the Attalid house contrasted favorably with the disorders and scandals of nobler dynasties.

C. THE THREE CONFEDERACIES.

1. The Ætolian Confederacy.

The energy of the northern Greek character was still unbroken in *Ætolia*, although it had degenerated into a reckless impatience of discipline and control. They might have been of great service to the Greek nation, had they been able to give up their thorough hostility to Macedonia and to the Achæan confederacy.

2. The Achæan Confederacy.

In the Peloponnesus, *the Achæan league* had united the best elements of Greece proper in a confederacy based on civilization, national spirit, and peaceful preparation for self-defence. But the unfortunate variances with Sparta and the lamentable invocation of Macedonian interference in the Peloponnesus made it so completely dependent on Macedonia, that the chief fortresses of the country soon received Macedonian garrisons, and the confederacy annually took the oath of fidelity to the Macedonian king.

3. The Mercantile Cities.

The most independent position among the intermediate states was held by the "*league of the Greek cities.*" They were spread from the Propontis to Rhodes, mostly on the eastern side of the Archipelago. Three of them, in particular, had after Alexander's death regained their full freedom, and by the activity of their maritime commerce had attained to respectable political power, and even to considerable territorial possessions; namely, BYZANTIUM, CYZICUS, and RHODES.

a. BYZANTIUM, the mistress of the Bosphorus, rendered wealthy and powerful by the transit dues which she levied, and by the important corn-trade carried on with the Black sea.

b. CYZICUS, on the Asiatic side of the Propontis, was the great outlet for the products of the interior of the Asiatic peninsula.

c. THE RHODIANS had, by their favorable position for commerce and navigation, secured the carrying trade of all the Eastern Mediterranean; and their well-handled fleet enabled them to become the champions of a neutral commercial policy. The Rhodians emphatically supported the Greek maritime cities in their struggles with their sovereigns, and so became the acknowledged head of the *league of the mercantile towns in the Eastern Archipelago.*

ROMAN HISTORY.

A. DEVELOPMENT OF THE ROMAN CONSTITUTION.

I. Regal Rome.

a. Character of the history of Regal Rome.

What is called the history of the kings and early consuls of Rome is to a great extent fabulous. It is certain that *more than* 360 *years after the foundation of Rome, the public records were destroyed by the Gauls*, and that *the oldest annals of the commonwealth were compiled more than a century and a half after the destruction of the records*, (that is, more than 5 centuries after the foundation of Rome in 750.)

b. The regal office.

The community of the Roman people arose out of the junction of ancient clan-

ships. Whoever belonged to one of these clans was a citizen of Rome. These citizens appointed from their own rank a *leader*, (**rex**,) who was the master in the household of the Roman community. This regal office was constituted by election; but the citizens did not owe fidelity and obedience to the king until he had convoked the assembly of freemen capable of bearing arms and formally challenged their allegiance. Then he acquired in its entireness that power over the community which a father had over his children; and, like him, he ruled for life.

As the house-master was not simply the greatest, but the only power in the house, so the king was not merely the first, but the only holder of power in the state. Death alone terminated his power. If he had not himself nominated a successor, the citizens assembled, unsummoned, and designated a temporary king, (interrex,) who could only remain in office five days. This interrex could not himself nominate the new king; but he nominated a second interrex for other five days, who then designated the new king.

Thus "the august blessing of the gods, with which renowned Rome was founded," was transmitted from its first regal recipient in regular succession to his six followers in office.

c. The seven Kings of Rome.

Name.	Date.	Length of Reign.	Character.	Buildings erected by them.	Relation to Predecessor.
ROMULUS	753–716	37	the founder.	the first wall.	
NUMA POMPILIUS	715–672	39	the religious lawgiver.		
TULLUS HOSTILIUS	672–640	32	the conqueror.	the senate house.	
ANCUS MARCIUS	640–616	24	the second religious lawgiver.	the oldest bridge and the prison.	grandson of Numa.
TARQUINIUS PRISCUS	616–578	38	the builder.	the great cloaca. the circus. the temple of Jupiter.	
SERVIUS TULLIUS	578–534	44	the civil lawgiver.	the temple of Diana. the ringwall.	
TARQUINIUS SUPERBUS	534–510	25	the tyrant.		son of Tarquinius Priscus.

d. The reformed Constitution of Servius Tullius.

Origin of the Plebeians. At all times there existed side by side with the citizens in the Roman community, their bondmen, who were called, either,

1. *Listeners*, (**clients**,) from their being dependants on the several households.
2. Or, *the multitude*, (**plebs**,) as they were termed negatively with reference to their want of political rights.

The elements of this intermediate stage between the freeman and the slave were in existence in the Roman household from the earliest times. The Roman citizens were the protectors; the plebeians were the protected. The number of these protected was continually augmented by two causes:

1. **By the Latins**, who, by the provisions of the Latin league, had the right of settling at Rome.
2. **By the conquest** of the neighboring towns, the greater part of whose population was transferred to Rome.

The burdens of the war fell exclusively on the old citizens, while the plebs shared in the results of victory without having to pay for it with their blood. The result of this was that the number of the plebeians was constantly on the increase, and liable to no special diminution, while that of the citizens (who were exposed to all the dangers of war) was, at the utmost perhaps, not decreasing.

Thus there grew up by the side of the citizens a second community in Rome: THE PLEBEIANS.

Plebeians admitted to military service. The first step toward the amalgamation of these two parts of the Roman people was made by the constitution which bears the name of Servius Tullius. By this Servian constitution, the duty of military service, instead of being imposed on the citizens as such, was laid upon the possessors of land, whether they were citizens or plebeians. *Service in the army was changed from a personal burden into a burden on property.* The arrangement was as follows:

Formation of the Army. Infantry. Every freeholder, from his 17th to his 60th year, was under obligation of military service. They were divided, according to the size of their farms, into five summonings, (classes.) The owners of a normal farm formed the first class. A normal farm contained as much land as could be properly tilled with one plough. The proprietors of such a farm were obliged to appear at the gathering of the militia in complete armor. The four following ranks, of smaller landholders, (the possessors of $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, or $\frac{1}{8}$ of a normal farm,) were required to fulfil service, but not to equip themselves in complete armor. Almost the half of the properties were normal farms.

The proprietors of either $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, or $\frac{1}{4}$ of a farm amounted to scarcely one-eighth

of the freeholders. Those, however, who owned ⅛ of a farm amounted to fully one-eighth of the whole number. The sixth rank contained those who owned no property whatever, the proletarii. They had to supply workmen and musicians for the army as well as a number of substitutes, who marched with the army unarmed, and when vacancies occurred took their places in the ranks, equipped with the armor of the sick or of the fallen.

Cavalry. They chose for the cavalry the most opulent and considerable proprietors among the citizens and the plebeians. A certain amount of landed property seems to have been regarded as involving an obligation to serve in the cavalry. This consisted of 1,800 horse, or 18 centuriæ, (100 men forming a centuria.)

e. Division of the Roman people according to the constitution of Servius Tullius.

A. **Cavalry**, divided into 18 centuriæ.

B. **Infantry**, divided into 168 centuriæ, subdivided into

1st class	containing	80 centuriæ.
2d class	"	20 "
3d class	"	20 "
4th class	"	20 "
5th class	"	28 "

C. **Campfollowers**, divided into 7 centuriæ.

As the population increased, the number of the centuriæ was not augmented, but the number of persons in each centuria was increased. Each centuria had one voice in the assembled levy of the militia, which was called the comitia centuriata, (the meeting of the companies.) One right was granted to this assembly: that of assenting to the declaration of an aggressive war.

II. The Political Revolution of 510 B. C.

a. The Expulsion of the Kings.

The Roman constitution placed in the hands of the king a formidable power, which was felt perhaps by the enemies of the land, but was not less heavily felt by its citizens. Abuse and oppression could not fail to ensue from it, and, as a necessary consequence, efforts were made to accomplish its limitation. The earliest achievement of this, the most ancient opposition in Rome, consisted in the abolition of the life tenure of the presidency of the community; in other words, in the abolition of the monarchy.

b. The two Consuls.

In the room of one president holding office for life, two annual rulers now were placed at the head of the Roman community. The one life-king was replaced by two year-kings, who called themselves generals, (**prætores**,) or judges, (**judices**,) or merely colleagues, (**consules**.) The supreme power was not intrusted to the two magistrates conjointly, but each consul possessed and exercised it for himself, as fully as it had been possessed and exercised by the king. The royal office was not broken up into parts, neither transferred from an individual to a committee, but simply doubled, and by that course, if necessary, neutralized through its own action. The two first consuls were Lucius Junius Brutus and Lucius Tarquinius Collatinus. The year was henceforth (until 541 A. D.) named after them.

c. The Dictator.

This doubling of the plenary power of the magistrate in reality applied only to the ordinary presidency of the community. In extraordinary cases the consuls were superseded by a "*master of the people*," (**magister populi**,) or *commander*, (**dictator**.) In the election of a dictator the community bore no part at all, his nomination proceeded solely from one of the consuls. There lay no appeal from his sentences unless he chose to allow it. As soon as he was nominated, all the other magistrates became legally powerless and entirely subject to his authority. To him as to the king was assigned a "*master of the horse*," (**magister equitum**.) The intention was that the dictator's authority should be distinguished from that of the king only by its limitation in point of time, the maximum duration of his office being six months. The first dictator, Titus Larcius, was appointed in 501 B. C., when Rome was threatened with a Latin war.

d. The assembly of the militia, comitia centuriata.

By this revolution, all the political prerogatives were transferred to *the assembly of the militia*, (the comitia centuriata,) so that the plebeians now received the rights as they had previously borne the burdens of citizens. The small beginnings of the constitution of Servius Tullius attained such a development that the comitia centuriata came to be regarded as the assembly of the sovereign people. With it rested:

I. The decision on appeals in criminal causes.
II. The nomination of magistrates.
III. The adoption or rejection of laws.

e. Patricians and Plebeians.

The object of the division of the Roman people into 193 centuriæ, or companies, had been the amalgamation of the patricians and plebeians: this object had been obtained; but one of the consequences of this amalgamation was that the patricians (**old citizens**) converted themselves into a gentile nobility, which bore from the first the stamp of an exclusive and wrongly privileged aristocracy.

The plebeians (new citizens) remained excluded from all public magistracies and public priesthoods, and could not legally intermarry with the patricians, although they were admitted to the position of officers and senators. After the expulsion of the kings, the vacancies in the senate were so extensively filled up with plebeians, that out of 300 senators more than half (164) were plebeians. Henceforth the internal history of Rome is nothing but the struggle of the plebeians to gain perfect equality in every respect with the patricians.

III. The Social Revolution of 495 and 494 B. C.

a. The secession to the Sacred Mount.

Cause. The aristocracy, which ruled Rome since 510, had struck a threefold blow at the smaller landholders:

I. They were deprived of the use of the common pasture.
II. The taxes were increased.
III. The distributions of land were entirely stopped.

To all this was added the farming on a large scale by means of slaves. This crushed the small farmers entirely. They sank more and more in debt, and became from actual freeholders mere nominal proprietors with actual possession. In this position the small farmer knew nothing of property but its burdens: this threatened to demoralize and politically to annihilate the whole farmer class.

Immediate Cause. When in 495 the levy was called forth for a dangerous war, the men bound to serve refused to obey the command unless the farmers imprisoned for debt were liberated. This was conceded. The farmers took their places in the ranks, and helped to secure the victory.

The peace which had been achieved by their exertions brought back their prison and their chains. They endured what could not be changed. But when in the following year the war was renewed, the consul's word availed no longer. It was not till Manius Valerius was nominated dictator, that the farmers, from their confidence in him, were induced to march against the enemy. The victory was again with the Romans; but when, after the campaign, the dictator would carry out his promises, (to alleviate the debtor's burdens,) he was prevented by the senate. The army still stood in its array before the gates of the city. When the conduct of the senate became known, it abandoned its general and its encampment, and marched into the district of Crustumeria, between the Tiber and the Anio.

The Secession. The plebeians occupied a hill, and threatened to establish in this, the most fertile part of the Roman territory, a new plebeian city. The senate gave way; the dictator negotiated an agreement; the citizens returned within the city walls, unity was outwardly restored, and the mount beyond the Anio was henceforth called the Sacred Mount.

Results. The consequences of this secession were felt for many centuries: it was the origin of the tribunate of the plebs. By the side of the two patrician consuls were placed two plebeian tribunes.

b. The Tribunes of the Multitude, (Tribuni Plebis.)

They originated from the military tribunes, (commanders of a division,) and derived from them their name; but constitutionally they had no further relation to them.

In respect to power the *tribunes of the multitude* stood upon a level with the consuls, but the consuls were necessarily patricians, and the tribunes necessarily plebeians.

The consuls had the ampler, the tribunes the more unlimited power, for the consul submitted to the prohibition and the judgment of the tribune, but the tribune did not submit himself to the consul. The power of the consuls was essentially positive, that of the tribunes essentially negative. Thus, in this remarkable institution, absolute prohibition was in the most stern and abrupt fashion opposed to absolute command.

The number of the tribunes was originally 2, then 5, and afterward 10.

c. The struggle between Patricians and Plebeians.

The institution of the tribunes was in reality the organization of the civil war.

Parties. A. The original settlers, old citizens, the patricians, the rich; whose object was the annihilation of the tribunate.

B. The later settlers, new citizens, the plebeians, the poor; whose avowed object was the restriction of the consular and extension of the tribunician power.

Among many attempts to annihilate the tribunate, that of 491 was especially remarkable. Gaius Marcius was a brave aristocrat, who derived his surname of *Coriolanus* from the storming of Corioli. Having been impeached by the tribunes for proposing, during a season of scarcity, that corn should be distributed among the people on condition of their renouncing the tribunate, he fled from the city. He returned, however, at the head of a Volscian army. When he was on the point of conquering the city of his ancestors for the public foe, the earnest appeal of his mother touched his conscience. He expiated his first treason by a second, and both by death.

d. The first Agrarian Law of Spurius Cassius, in 486.

Spurius Cassius, a noble-minded patrician, tried to make an end to the civil dissensions by striking at the root of the evil. He attempted to break down the financial omnipotence of the rich. He proposed to have the public domain measured, and to leave part of it for the benefit of the public treasury, while the rest was to be distributed among the poor.

The nobles rose as one man: the rich plebeians took part with them; even the commons; the poor, were dissatisfied because he wanted to give to the Latin confederates their share in the distribution of the land. Cassius had to die. There was some truth in the charge that he had usurped regal power, for he had endeavored to exercise the chief kingly duty, *to protect the poor against the rich.* The law of Cassius was buried along with him, but its spectre thenceforward incessantly haunted the eyes of the rich, and again and again it rose from the tomb against them, till the conflicts to which it led destroyed the commonwealth.

IV. The Legal Revolution.

a. The Law of the XII. Tables.

The want of any written code of laws for the plebeians induced the tribune Caius Terentilius Arsa to propose a commission to prepare a code of public laws. Ten years elapsed ere this proposal was carried into effect. At length, in the year 453, the preparation of a legal code was resolved upon, and an embassy was despatched to Greece to bring home the laws of Solon. On its return, (451,) there were elected from the nobility ten men (decemvirs) for drawing up a code of law. These decemvirs, after having been bound not to infringe the sworn liberties of the commons, were clothed for one year with irresponsible authority. They made a series of legal provisions, divided into 10 sections, which, after they had received the assent of the nation, were engraved on 10 tables of brass, and affixed in the forum to the rostra in front of the senate-house. But as a

supplement appeared necessary, decemvirs were again nominated, in 450, who added two more tables.

Thus originated the first and only legal code of Rome, the law of the twelve tables.

b. Political significance of the Law of the XII. Tables.

The real political significance of the measure resided less in the contents of its legislation than in the formal obligation now laid upon the consuls to administer justice according to its forms of procedure and its rules of law, and in the public exhibition of the code of laws, by which the administration of justice was subjected to the control of publicity, and the consul was compelled to dispense equal and common justice to all.

c. Prolongation of the rule of the Decemvirs.

During the rule of the decemvirs, neither consuls nor tribunes were elected. The patricians, apprehensive that when consuls were elected, the power of the tribunes should be also revived, prolonged the power of the decemvirs in order to wait for a favorable moment to revive the consulate without reviving the tribunes.

d. Fall of the Decemvirs.

A former tribune, *Lucius Siccius Dentatus*, a veteran of 120 battles, was found dead in front of the camp, murdered, as was whispered, at the instigation of the decemvirs. A revolution was fermenting in men's minds; and its outbreak was hastened by the unjust sentence pronounced by Appius in a trial about the freedom of the daughter of Virginius — a sentence which induced the father himself to plunge his knife into the heart of his daughter, in the open forum, to rescue her from certain shame. On receiving intelligence of this event, all the plebeians abandoned their camps and leaders, (this happened in the midst of a war with the Sabines,) and proceeded once more to the Sacred Mount, where they again nominated their own tribunes. Still the decemvirs refused to resign their power, and the army appeared with its tribunes in the city, and encamped on the Aventine. Then, at length, when civil war was imminent, the decemvirs renounced their dishonored power. The decemvirs were impeached, the consulate was revived, and with it the power of the tribunes. No attempt to abolish this magistracy was ever from this time forward made in Rome, (450.)

V. The Equalization of the Patricians and Plebeians.

a. The Plebeian Aristocracy and the Tribunate.

The institution of the tribunes originated in social rather than political discontent, and the wealthy plebeians admitted to the senate were no less opposed to it than the patricians themselves; for they shared in the privileges against which the movement was mainly directed. But this league of the rich (patricians and wealthy plebeians) by no means bore within it any security for its permanence. Three things had now (449) become perfectly clear to them:

1. That the tribunate of the plebs could never be set aside.
2. That concessions to the plebs were inevitable in the issue; and,
3. That, if turned to due account, they would result in the abrogation of the exclusive rights of the patriciate.

The plebeian aristocracy knew also what would be the inevitable result of all this — *their decisive preponderance in the state.*

They seized, therefore, this powerful lever, (the power of the tribunes,) and began to employ it for the removal of the political disabilities of their order.

The two fundamental principles of the patricians were:

1. The invalidity of marriage between patricians and plebeians.
2. The incapacity of plebeians to hold public offices.

Both were annulled about 444 B.C.: the admittance of the plebeians to the public offices continued to be refused in name, but was conceded to them in reality, although in a singular form.

b. The Military Tribunes with consular power.

Every year (from 444–367 B.C.) a law had to be passed declaring whether consuls should be elected for the succeeding year or not. If no consuls were to be elected, their place was filled by *military tribunes with consular powers*, and *consular duration of office.* But every one serving in the militia might attain the place of an officer: by granting the consular powers to the chief officers of the army, who might be plebeians, the supreme magistracy was opened up alike to patricians and plebeians. But now the exclusive possession of the supreme magistracy could no longer be defended, it seemed advisable to divest it of its financial importance, and by means of patrician censors (appraisors) and quæstors, (paymasters,) to keep at least the budget and the state chest under the exclusive control of the patriciate. They succeeded with the censorship, but the quæstorship was soon thrown open to the plebeians, (421 B.C.)

c. The Censorship, 435 B.C.

The adjustment of the budget and of the taxation rolls, which ordinarily took place every fourth year, and had hitherto been managed by the consuls, was in 435 intrusted to two appraisers, (censors,) nominated from among the patricians, for a period of 18 months. This new office gradually became the palladium of the patricians, on account of the right belonging to it of filling up vacancies in the senate and in the companies of the horse, (the knights.)

d. The Licinian Rogations — Plebeian Consuls.

During these political struggles, social questions had lain altogether dormant; although the public domain was ever extending in consequence of the successful wars, and although pauperism was ever spreading more widely among the farmers.

At length an honest attempt was made to relieve the poor, by the tribunes C. Licinius Stolo and Lucius Sextius.

They submitted the following proposals (known as *the Licinian rogations*):

1. To abolish the military tribunes with consular power, and to lay it down as a rule that at least one of the consuls should be a plebeian.

2. To open up to the plebeians admission to one of the three great colleges of priests.
3. To allow no citizens to maintain upon the public pastures more than a hundred oxen and five hundred sheep, or to occupy more than 300 acres of the public lands by squatter-right.
4. To oblige land-owners to employ in the labors of the field a number of free laborers proportioned to that of their rural slaves.
5. To procure alleviation for debtors by deduction of the interest which had been paid, from the capital.

Abolition of privileges, social reform, civic equality — these were the three great ideas of which it was the design of this movement to secure the recognition.

After a struggle of eleven years they became finally law, (367.)

With the election of the first plebeian consul, (366,) the patriciate ceased, both in fact and in law, to be numbered among the political institutions of Rome.

e. The Prætorship.

Under the pretext that the patricians were exclusively cognizant of law, the administration of justice was detached from the consulate when the latter had to be thrown open to the plebeians, and for that purpose there was nominated a third consul, or, as he was commonly called, a prætor. In like manner, the judicial police duties were assigned to two patrician ædiles, (ædiles curules.)

f. Final equalization between the two orders.

The plebeians were admitted to the dictatorship in 356 B. C., to the censorship in 351 B. C., and to the prætorship in 337 B. C.

The struggle between the patricians and plebeians was thus substantially at an end. The patriciate, however, by no means disappeared because it had become an empty name. The less its significance and power the more purely and exclusively the patrician spirit developed itself.

g. The Senate.

We have seen how, during these struggles between patricians and plebeians, the authority of the supreme magistrate had been continually divided, and thereby weakened, so that the consuls were nothing but the presidents and executives of the senate, which, from a body solely meant to tender advice, had become the central government of the state.

Every matter of permanent and general importance, and particularly the whole system of finance, depended absolutely on it. Called to power through the free choice of the nation; confirmed every five years by the stern moral judgment of the worthiest men; holding office for life; embracing in its body all that the people possessed of political intelligence and practical statesmanship — the Roman senate was the noblest embodiment of the nation; and in consistency and political sagacity, in unanimity and patriotism, the foremost political corporation of all times — an assembly of kings, which well knew how to combine despotic energy with republican self-devotedness. Never was a state represented in its external relations more firmly and worthily than Rome in its best times by its senate.

B. DEVELOPMENT OF THE ROMAN TERRITORY.

I. Consolidation of Latium.

a. The league of the three nations: Romans, Latins, and Hernici.

The great achievement of the regal period was the establishment of the sovereignty of Rome over Latium.

The danger from Etruria, which had reached its highest development about 500 B. C., induced the Latin nation to adhere to the continued recognition of the Roman supremacy, after the expulsion of the kings. The permanently united nation was enabled, not only to maintain, but also to extend on all sides its power. The conquests of the earlier republican period were at the expense of Rome's eastern and southern neighbors. Three nations were conquered during that time:

I. *The Sabines*, dwelling between the **Tiber** and the **Anio.**
II. *The Æqui*, dwelling next to the Sabines, on the **Upper Anio.**
III. *The Volscians*, dwelling on the **Tyrrhene sea.**

The Sabines were soon conquered, but the struggle with the Æqui and Volsci lasted more than a century.

b. Spurius Cassius the father of the league.

Spurius Cassius enabled the Romans to triumph over their enemies by his renewal, consolidation, and extension of the ancient league between Rome and Latium. He is known as the author of three works to which Rome owed all her future greatness:

1. He renewed the league with the Latins in 493.
2. He concluded the league with the Hernici in 486.
3. He procured, at the price of his own life, the enactment of the first agrarian law. (See page 181, col. 2, *d.*)

By his two treaties he had, so far as was possible, repaired the losses occasioned to the Roman power by the expulsion of Tarquinius, and had reorganized that confederacy to which, under her last kings, Rome had been indebted for her greatness. The wound was healed at the very critical moment, before the storm of the great Volscian invasions burst upon Latium, and, thanks to the league, the Volscians were not only driven back, but even conquered, (383.)

c. Attempts to dissolve the league.

But the more decided the successes that the league of the Romans, Latins, and Hernici achieved against the Volsci and other surrounding nations, the more that league became liable to disunion. The main cause of this was the very subjugation of the common foe: forbearance ceased on one side, devotedness ceased on the other, from the time that they thought that they had no longer need of each other. The open breach between the Latins and Hernici on the one hand, and the Romans on the other, was especially occasioned by the capture of Rome by the Celts in 390, and the momentary weakness which supervened. The struggle was long and severe, but terminated, however, with the renewal of the treaties between Rome and the Latin and Hernician confederacies, in 358 B. C. They submitted once more, and probably on harder terms, to the Roman supremacy.

II. The Wars between Rome and Veii.

a. The war of 483 till 474.

Twelve miles to the north of Rome was situated the wealthy and powerful city of Veii, the old antagonist of Rome. A furious war raged between the two rivals from 483–474 B. C. The Romans suffered in its course severe defeats. Tradition especially preserved the memory of the catastrophe of the Fabii, who had undertaken the defence of the frontier against Etruria, and who were slain to the last man capable of bearing arms, at the rivulet of the Cremera, (477.) But by the armistice for 400 months, which terminated the war, Rome recovered its ground, and the two nations were restored in the main to the state in which they had stood during the regal period.

b. The war with Veii about Fidenæ.

When the armistice expired, in 445, the war began afresh, but it took the form of border frays, which led to no material result. At length the revolt of Fidenæ, (10 miles from Rome, on the left bank of the Tiber,) which expelled the Roman garrison, murdered the Roman envoys, and submitted to Lars Tolumnius, king of Veii, gave rise to a more considerable war, which ended favorably for the Romans. Fidenæ was retaken, and a new armistice for 200 months was concluded in 425 B. C.

c. The fall of Veii.

When this armistice expired, toward the end of 408, the Romans resolved to undertake a war of conquest in Etruria; and on this occasion the war was carried on not merely to vanquish Veii, but to crush it.

The history of this war and of the siege of Veii rests on little reliable evidence. Legend and poetry have taken possession of these events as their own, and with reason; for the struggle in this case was waged with unprecedented exertions for an unprecedented prize.

It was the first occasion in which a Roman army remained in the field summer and winter, year after year, till its object was attained.

It was the first occasion on which the community paid the levy from the resources of the state.

It was the first occasion on which the Romans attempted to subdue a nation of alien stock, and carried their arms beyond the ancient boundaries of the Latin land.

Veii succumbed, in 396 B. C., to the persevering and heroic energy of *Marcus Furius Camillus*, who first opened up to his countrymen the brilliant but perilous career of foreign conquest.

Veii was destroyed, and the soil was doomed to perpetual desolation.

The statement that the two bulwarks of the Etruscan nation, Melpum and Veii, yielded on the same day, (the former to the Celts, the latter to the Romans,) may be merely a melancholy legend, but it at any rate involves a deep historical truth. The double assault on the north and on the south, and the fall of the two frontier strongholds, were the beginning of the end of the great Etruscan nation.

III. The Burning of Rome.

a. The Celts and the Etruscans.

A new nation had been for some time knocking at the gates of the Alps, and finally had entered the Italian peninsula. It was the Celtic nation, and their first pressure fell on the Etruscans, from whom they wrested place after place, till, after the fall of Melpum, (396 B. C.,) the whole left bank of the Po was in their hands.

For a moment, however, it seemed as if the two nations (Celts and Romans) by whom Etruria saw her very existence put in jeopardy, were about to destroy each other. This turn of things the Romans brought upon themselves by their own arrogance.

The Celtic swarms very rapidly overflowed northern Italy and besieged Clusium, and so humbled were the Etruscans that they invoked help from their bitter enemies, the Romans.

b. The Celts and the Romans.

The Romans declined to send assistance, but despatched envoys. These envoys sought to impose upon the Celts by haughty language, and, when this failed, they thought they might with impunity violate the law of nations in dealing with barbarians: in the rank of the Clusines they took part in a skirmish, and in the course of it one of them stabbed a Gallic officer. Redress being refused, the Gauls broke up the siege of Clusium and turned against Rome. It was not till the Gauls had crossed the Tiber and were at the rivulet of the Allia, less than 12 miles from the gates, that a Roman military force sought to hinder their passage, on July 18th, 390. The Romans were defeated.

c. The Catastrophe.

Not only was the overthrow complete, but the disorderly flight of the Romans carried the greater portion of the defeated army to the right bank of the Tiber. The capital was thus left to the mercy of the invaders; the small force that was left behind was not sufficient to garrison the walls, and three days after the battle the victors marched through the open gates into Rome. They murdered all they met with, and at length set the city on fire on all sides, before the eyes of the Roman garrison in the Capitol. The Celts remained for 7 months beneath the rock, and the garrison already found its provisions beginning to fail, when the Celts received information as to the Veneti having invaded their recently acquired territory on the Po, and were thus induced to accept the ransom money that was offered to secure their retreat. When the Gauls had again withdrawn, the city arose out of its ruins, and Rome again stood in her old commanding position.

IV. The Consolidation of Central Italy.

a. Latins and Samnites.

The Samnite nation had been for centuries in possession of the hill country which rises between the Apulian and Campanian plains. The fall of the Etruscan power, and the decline of the Greek colonies (about 450 B. C.) made room for them toward the west and south; and now one Samnite horde after another marched down to the southern coasts of Italy. Campania was first occupied, Lucania soon afterward. The Greeks of Lower Italy tried to resist the pressure of the barbarians. But their union no longer availed. One Greek city after another was occupied or annihilated by the Samnites. Tarentum alone remained thoroughly

independent and powerful. When we compare the achievements of the two great nations of Italy, the Latins and the Samnites, before 343 B. C., the career of conquest on the part of the latter appears far wider and more splendid than that of the former.

But the character of their conquests was essentially different. From the fixed urban centre which Latium possessed in Rome, the dominion of the Latin stock spread slowly on all sides, and lay within limits comparatively narrow. But it planted its foot firmly at every step, partly by the founding of fortresses, partly by the Romanizing of the territory which it conquered. It was otherwise with Samnium. There was in its case no single leading community, and therefore no policy of conquest. Every Samnite horde which had sought and found new settlements, pursued a path of its own. They filled a large space, while yet they showed no disposition to make it thoroughly their own. Instead of Samnitizing the Hellens, they became Hellenized. They could not resist the dangerous charm of Hellenic culture, but adopted Greek manners, and also Greek vices. The old mountain home of the Samnites alone remained unaffected by these innovations, which powerfully contributed to relax still more the bond of national unity, which from the first was loose. Through the influence of Greek habits a deep schism took place in the Samnite stock. The civilized Samnites of the plain were accustomed to tremble, like the Greeks themselves, before the ruder tribes of the mountains, who were continually penetrating into Campania and disturbing the degenerate earlier settlers. Rome was a compact state, having the strength of all Latium at its disposal; its subjects might murmur, but they obeyed.

The Samnite stock was dispersed and divided, and while the confederacy in Samnium proper had preserved unimpaired the manners and valor of their ancestors, they were on that very account completely at variance with the other Samnite tribes.

It was this variance between the Samnites of the plain and the Samnites of the mountains that led the Romans over the Liris, and became the immediate cause of the Samnite war.

b. The Wars between Rome and Samnium.

Number of wars. Three wars, of which the second was the most remarkable. Between the first and second Samnite war, falls the Latin war.

Duration. More than half a century, 53 years, (343–290 B. C.)

Theatre of war. Central Italy.

Parties. A. The Latins, under the leadership of Rome. B. The Italian tribes of central Italy, especially the Samnites.

Question at issue. Shall Italy become united and civilized, or is it doomed to remain a loose collection of shepherd tribes?

Result. Centralization of central Italy under Roman supremacy.

I. First Samnite War.

Cause. The surrender of the city of Capua (on Samnian soil) by its own inhabitants to the Romans, that they might be protected by them against their own kinsmen.

Duration. About two years, (343–341 B. C.)

Theatre of war. Campania.

Parties. A. The Romano-Latin league with the people of Capua. B. The Samnites, with the Volscians and other tribes.

Commander. Marcus Valerius Corvus, the Roman commander.

Battles. *Mount Gaurus* and *Suessula*, both gained by the Romans.

Result. Capua was left in the hands of the Romans, Teanum in the hands of the Samnites, and the upper Liris in those of the Volscians.

Causes of peace. Two. 1. A mutiny among the Roman army stationed at Capua. 2. The breaking out of the great Latin war.

Between the First and Second Samnite War.

II. The Great Latin War.

Cause. The refusal of the Romans to admit the Latins to the full rights of Roman citizens.

Duration. Nearly three years, (340–338 B. C.)

Theatre of war. Campania and Latium.

Parties. A. **Romans,** in alliance with the Samnites. B. **Latins,** in alliance with the Campanians.

Object of the war. To make an end to Rome's supremacy over Latium.

Result of the war. The dissolution of the Latin league. It was transformed from an independent political confederation into a mere association for the purpose of a religious festival.

Great commander. Titus Manlius TORQUATUS, the Roman general.

Battle. The decisive battle was fought in 340, near TRIFANUM, on the Liris. Complete victory of the Romans.

Peace. Instead of the one treaty between Rome on the one hand, and the Latin confederacy on the other, perpetual alliances were entered into between Rome and the several confederate towns.

III. Second, or Great Samnite War.

Cause. The Romans demanded satisfaction from Palæopolis and Neapolis, *the present town of Naples*, for depredations committed by them in Campania. This was refused by the advice of the Samnites, who actually threw a strong garrison into Palæopolis, to defend it against the Romans. Hereupon the Romans declared war, nominally against the inhabitants of Palæopolis, in reality against the Samnites.

Duration. About 22 years, (326–304 B. C.)

Theatre of war. Central Italy.

Parties. A. **The Romans** allied with the Latins, Campanians, and Apulians; the inhabitants of the Italian plains. B. **The Samnites,** allied with the mountain tribes of central Italy, and the Etruscans, and even the Gauls; the inhabitants of the Italian mountain districts.

Commanders. A. **Roman:** Marcus PAPIRIUS CURSOR, Quintus FABIUS MAXIMUS. B. **Samnite:** Caius PONTIUS TELESINUS.

Battles. A. Gained by the **Romans:** VADIMONIAN LAKE, (310,) TIFERNUM, (305.) B. Gained by the **Samnites:** CAUDINE PASS, (321.)

Result. The fall of the chief stronghold of Samnium, (Bovianum, in 305.) terminated the twenty-two years' war. The Samnites sued for peace. The victory of Rome was complete, and she turned it to full account.

Consequences of the Roman victory. Their first endeavor was to complete the subjugation of central Italy by military roads and fortresses, and by that means to separate the northern and southern Italians into two masses, cut off, in a military point of view, from direct contact with each other.

The region which separated Samnium from Etruria was penetrated by two military roads, both of which were secured by new fortresses. The northern road, which afterward became the **Flaminian**, covered the line of the *Tiber*. The southern, afterward the **Valerian**, ran along the *Fucine lake*. The **Appian road**, secured Apulia and Campania.

These roads served to connect together a series of road-fortresses, (Latin colonies.) By their means Samnium would be in a few years entirely surrounded, isolated from the rest of Italy, and completely in the grasp of Rome.

IV. Condition of Italy between the Second and Third Samnite War.

The high-spirited Samnite nation perceived that such a peace was more ruinous than the most destructive war, and it acted accordingly. The Celts in northern Italy were just beginning to bestir themselves again.

Several Etruscan communities were still in arms against the Romans. All central Italy was still in ferment, and partly in open insurrection. The fortresses were still only in course of construction.

The way between Etruria and Samnium was not yet completely closed. Perhaps it was not yet too late to save freedom. But if so, there must be no delay.

The difficulty of attack increased, the power of the assailant diminished with every year by which the peace was prolonged.

Five years had scarce elapsed since the contest ended, and all the wounds must still have been bleeding which the twenty-two years' war had inflicted on the rural communes of Samnium, when, in 298, the Samnite confederacy renewed the struggle.

V. Third Samnite War.

Cause. The Samnites invade Lucania, which was in alliance with Rome. They refuse to evacuate it.

Duration. About nine years, (299–290 B. C.)

Theatre of war. Lucania, central Italy, Etruria.

Parties. A general league of the *Italian nations against Rome.*

Great commanders. **Roman:** Quintus FABIUS Maximus, Publius DECIUS Mus. **Samnite:** Caius PONTIUS Telesinus.

Battle. Great overthrow of the allied Samnites, Etruscans, Umbrians, and Gauls, at Sentinum, in Umbria. Self-devotion of Decius Mus.

Result. Every resource of Samnium was exhausted. Rome is no longer merely the first, but already the ruling power in Italy.

VI. The Roman Territory at the close of the Samnite Wars, in 290.

The compact Roman domain at the close of the Samnite wars was bounded: North: by the Ciminian forest. East: by the Abruzzi. South: by the river Clanis. The two advanced posts of Luceria and Venusia isolated their opponents on every side.

V. Struggle between Pyrrhus and Rome.

Cause. Assault on a Roman squadron in the harbor of Tarentum, where they had anchored against the stipulations of a treaty. An embassy, sent by the Romans to demand satisfaction, having been insulted by the Tarentines, war was immediately proclaimed.

Duration. Five years, (280–275 B. C.)

Theatre of war. Lucania and Apulia.

Parties. A. Rome. B. Tarentum, aided by King Pyrrhus and the south Italian nations.

Commanders. A. **Roman:** Fabricius and Manius Curius. B. **Tarentine:** Pyrrhus, Cineas, Milo.

Battles. A. Gained by ROME: Beneventum, (275.) B. Gained by PYRRHUS: Heraclea, (280,) Asculum, (279.)

Sicilian campaign. From 278–276, (during two and a half years,) Pyrrhus was absent in Sicily, where, as son-in-law to the deceased Agathocles, he was invited to take the command of a Siculo-Greek army. In this capacity he drove the Carthaginians to the extreme west of the island. Unable to take their last stronghold, Lilybæum, he lost the confidence of his allies, and returned to Italy, where his mercenaries were defeated by Manius Curius Dentatus, at Beneventum.

Results. 1st. Rome absolute mistress of Italy. 2d. The superiority of the Roman militia over the Greek phalanx completely proved.

VI. United Italy, (B. C. 270.)

In 270 the whole of Italy was united under the supremacy of Rome. With this union of the Italian nations was connected the rise of a new name common to them all — 1st. That of "the men of the toga," (togati,) which was their oldest designation in Roman state law. 2d. Or that of the "Italians," which was the appellation for them originally in use among the Greeks, and thence came to be universally current.

The various nations inhabiting the peninsula were first led to feel their unity through their common resistance to the Celts; and it is probable that the repelling of the Celtic invasions played an important part as a reason for centralizing the military resources of Italy in the hand of the Romans. When the Romans took the lead in the great national struggle, and compelled the other Italian

nations to fight under their standards, that unity obtained firm consolidation and recognition in state-law; and the name Italia, which originally pertained only to the modern Calabria, was transferred to the whole land of these wearers of the toga.

The earliest boundaries of this great armed confederacy led by Rome, or of the new Italy, reached on the western coast as far as the district of Leghorn, south of the Arnus; on the east, as far as the Æsis, north of Ancona.

Position of United Italy about 270 B. C.

This Italy had become already a political unity; it was also in the course of becoming a national unity.

Already the ruling Latin nationality had assimilated to itself the Sabines and Volscians, and scattered, isolated Latin communities (the Latin colonies or road-fortresses) over all Italy; these germs were merely developed when, subsequently, the Latin language became the mother tongue of every one entitled to wear the toga.

The singular cohesion which that confederation subsequently exhibited under the severest shocks, stamped their great work with the seal of success.

From the time when the threads of this net, drawn as skilfully as firmly around all Italy, were concentrated in the hands of the Roman community, it became a great power, and took its place in the system of the Mediterranean states.

The other Mediterranean states were Carthage, Egypt, Macedonia, and Asia, (the empire of the Seleucidæ.)

Connection of the conquered States with Rome.

The Italian states were divided into three classes:

1. Nations which had been admitted to the privilege of Roman citizenship.
2. Nations which were admitted as allies of Rome.
3. The subject nations.

The Italian towns were also divided into three classes:

1. *Municipia:* towns which had been admitted to the privilege of Roman citizenship.
2. *Colonies.* *a.* Latin colonies, or road-fortresses. *b.* Burgess colonies, or maritime fortresses.

These colonies contained a double population:

I. The original inhabitants, now vassals of Rome, and occupiers of a portion only of the estates which had formerly been their own.

II. The new colonists, who formed, not only the garrison of the fortress, but who had also the entire administration of the town in their hands.

3. *Præfectures* were towns to which a præfect, or magistrate charged with the administration of the laws, was sent out every year from Rome, for the purpose of maintaining the supremacy of the Roman code.

C. THE PUNIC WARS.

I. Situation of Rome and Carthage, on the eve of the great struggle.

Carthage and Rome were, when the struggle between them began, on the whole equally matched.

But while Carthage had put forth all the efforts of which intellect and wealth were capable to provide herself with artificial means of attack and defence, she was unable in any satisfactory way to supply the fundamental wants of a land army of her own.

That Rome could only be seriously attacked in Italy, and Carthage only in Libya, no one could fail to see; as little could any one fail to perceive that Carthage could not in the long run escape from such an attack.

Fleets were not yet, in those times of the infancy of navigation, the heirloom of nations, but could be fitted out wherever there were trees, iron, and water.

It was clear, and had been several times tested in Africa itself, that even powerful maritime states were not able to prevent a weaker enemy from landing. When Agathocles had shown the way thither, a Roman general could follow the same course; and while in Italy the mere entrance of an invading army began the war, the same event in Africa put an end to it, by changing it into a siege, in which even the most obstinate and heroic courage must finally succumb.

II. General Summary of the Wars.

Number. Three, of which the second was the most important.

Theatre of war. The countries around and islands within the western basin of the Mediterranean.

Parties. The Indo-European race against the Semites.

Question at issue. The supremacy over the countries surrounding the Mediterranean.

Result. Rome mistress of the Mediterranean.

III. First Punic War.

Cause. The Mamertines of Messana (Oscan mercenaries, a horde of adventurers and plunderers, who were the common enemies of mankind,) apply for aid from Rome against the Carthaginians and King Hiero.

Duration. Twenty-three years, (263–241.)

Theatre of war. Sicily, Africa, and the seas surrounding Sicily.

Parties. A. United Italy under the leadership of Rome, allied with Syracuse. B. The Carthaginians.

Divisions. I. 263–257. War in Sicily; success of the Romans; duration, seven years.—II. 256–250. War in Africa; defeat of the Romans; duration, seven years.—III. 249–241. War around Lilybæum; the Romans retrieve their losses; duration, nine years.

Commanders. A. **Roman:** Duilius and Regulus. B. **Carthaginian:** Hamilcar Barcas.

Battles. Naval battles gained by the Romans: Mylæ, (260;) Ecnomus,

(256;) Ægætian isles, (242.) Gained by the **Carthaginians**: Drepanum, (249.) Land battle gained by the Romans: Panormus, (251,) the greatest engagement of the war.

Cause of peace. The Carthaginians fail to send commissary stores to their Sicilian garrisons.

Condition of peace. Cession of Sicily and of all the small islands between Italy and Sicily.

Result. This great conflict had extended the dominion of Rome beyond the circling sea that encloses the peninsula, and had changed entirely her political system. The purely Italian policy had been gradually changed to the policy of a great state.

A land army and the system of a civic militia no longer sufficed. It had been necessary to create a fleet, and, what was more difficult, to employ it.

That mighty creation, however, was but a grand expedient. The naval service continued to be little esteemed in comparison with the high honor of serving in the legions; the naval officers were for the most part Italian Greeks; the crews were composed of subjects, or even of slaves and outcasts. Nevertheless, the Roman fleet, with its unwieldy grandeur, was the noblest creation of genius in this war; and, as at its beginning, so at its close, it was the fleet that turned the scale in favor of Rome.

At the close of the first Punic war, the Italian confederacy united the various civic and cantonal communities, from the Apennines to the Ionian sea, under the hegemony of Rome.

During the 23 years that intervened between the first and second Punic war, Italy was extended to its natural boundaries. The boundary of the Alps was reached, in so far as the whole flat country on the Po was either rendered subject to the Romans or was occupied by dependent allies.

IV. Events between the First and Second Punic War.

1st. The war of the mercenaries against Carthage; suppressed, after fearful horrors, by Hamilcar, in its third year.

2d. The Carthaginians are obliged to surrender Sardinia and Corsica to the Romans.

3d. To indemnify themselves for this loss, the Carthaginians had commenced the subjugation of Spain.

4th. Their progress was stopped by the conclusion of a treaty with the Romans, in which the Carthaginians were pledged not to pass the river Iberus, (Ebro,) and to respect Saguntum as an ally of Rome.

V. Second Punic War.

Cause. The taking of Saguntum by Hannibal, (219.)
Duration. Seventeen years, (218–201 B. C.)
Theatre of war. Italy — Spain — Africa.
Parties. I. Rome. II. Carthage, aided by all the different Italian nationalities with the exception of the Latins.
Divisions. 4 years, (218–215.) Victorious career of Hannibal from Spain to Capua.
4 years, (215–211.) Gradual recovery of the Romans.
4 years, (211–207.) Hannibal confined to Southern Italy.
4 years, (206–201.) Gradual retreat of Hannibal.
2 years, (203–201.) The African war.
Contemporaneous war in Spain, (218–206.)

Commanders. I. **Rome**: The Scipios, especially Scipio Major, Fabius Cunctator, (the Delayer,) Marcellus, Claudius Nero.

II. **Carthaginian**: The three sons of Hamilcar Barcas, Hannibal, Hasdrubal, Mago.

Hannibal's march. From Carthago Nova, in south-eastern Spain, into Italy, (5 months.) From Carthagena to Emporium, (in north-eastern Spain.) From Emporium, across the eastern part of the Pyrenees, through southern France, to the ford of the Rhone near Orange. Along the eastern side of the Rhone to Vienne. From Vienne eastward to Montmeillan on the Isère. Along the right bank of the Isère to Scez. From Scez, over the Little St. Bernard, to Morgez on the Dorea Baltea. Along the left bank of the Dorea Baltea to Ivrea, and from thence to Turin.

Battles. Gained by **Hannibal**: Ticinus, (218,) Trebia, (218,) Trasimenus, (217,) Cannæ, (216.)

Gained by the **Romans**: Nola, (215,) Metaurus, (210,) Zama, (202.)

Cause of peace. Carthage exhausted.

Conditions of peace. 1st. The surrender to the Romans of all her ships of war, (exc. 10.)

2d. To pay, within 50 years, 10,000 talents, ($15,000,000.)

3d. To undertake no war without the consent of Rome.

Result of the war. 1st. The conversion of Spain into two Roman provinces.

2d. The union of the kingdom of Syracuse (conquered by Marcellus in 212) with the Roman province of Sicily.

3d. The establishment of a Roman instead of the Carthaginian protectorate over Numidia.

4th. The conversion of Carthage from a powerful commercial state into a defenceless mercantile town.

In other words, it established the uncontested hegemony of Rome over the western region of the Mediterranean.

VI. Events between the Second and Third Punic War, 201–150 B. C., a period of 50 years.

1st. The Macedonian wars.

a. The first Macedonian war, (213–205,) instigated by Hannibal, was contemporaneous with the second Punic war. The Romans excited the Ætolians against Macedonia, to prevent its sending assistance to Hannibal.

b. The second Macedonian war (200–197) was undertaken in order to punish Philip of Macedonia for the assistance he had given to Carthage. The war ended with the victory of the Romans at Cynoscephalæ, (197.) Philip was compelled to renounce the hegemony of Greece. Freedom of Greece proclaimed by the Romans.

c. The third Macedonian war, (171–168.) Complete conquest of Macedonia in

consequence of the battle at Pydna, (168.) Macedonia divided into four independent districts. Twenty years later it was made a Roman province, (148.)

Polybius dates from the battle of Pydna the full establishment of the universal empire of Rome. The whole civilized world thenceforth recognized in the Roman senate the supreme tribunal, whose commissioners decided in the last resort between kings and nations.

2d. War with Antiochus III., of Syria, (192–190 B. C.,) between the second and third Macedonian war. (See ANTIOCHUS THE GREAT.)

3d. Continual wars in Spain. A brilliant victory over the Celtiberi (195 B. C.) placed the whole of Spain, north of the Ebro, at the disposal of Marcus Porcius Cato, who commanded the inhabitants of all the towns to demolish their walls on the same day.

VII. Third Punic War.

Cause. The Carthaginians had made war without permissions of the Romans, (against the treaty of peace.)
Duration. Five years, (150–146 B. C.)
Theatre of war. The immediate vicinity of Carthage.
Parties. The Romans, with the Numidians, against Carthage.
Commanders. **Roman:** Scipio Minor. **Carthaginian:** Hasdrubal.
Result. Destruction of Carthage. The whole of the Carthaginian Empire (except that portion that belonged to Numidia) became a Roman province, under the name of Africa, with Utica for its capital.

The real gainers by the destruction of the first commercial city of the West were the Roman merchants, who flocked in troops to Utica, and from that as their head-quarters began to turn to profitable account the whole of northwestern Africa, which had hitherto been closed to them.

VIII. Jugurthine War.

Cause. The usurpation of Numidia by Jugurtha, the grandson of Masinissa.
Duration. Seven years, (112–106 B. C.)
Theatre of war. Numidia, the north-western part of Africa.
Parties. The native African element against the foreigners, (the Romans.)
Commanders. **Roman:** Metellus, Marius, Sulla. **African:** Jugurtha, Bomilcar.
Battles. Roman victory on the Muthul.
Results. Capture and execution of Jugurtha. Complete conquest of Numidia, which, however, was not incorporated with the Roman state. The western part was given to Bocchus, king of Mauretania, to reward his betrayal of Jugurtha. The eastern portion was given to Gauda, the only surviving grandson of Masinissa.

D. THE CONSOLIDATION OF THE SHORES OF THE MEDITERRANEAN.

I. The War with the Cimbri and Teutones.

Cause. The refusal of the Romans to grant them a tract of land in Gaul.
Duration. Thirteen years, (113–101.)
Theatre of war. South-eastern France, and north-western Italy.
Commander. **Roman:** Caius MARIUS. **Barbarian:** Teutoboch.
Battles. Two Roman victories, near Aquæ Sextiæ, (102 B. C.,) and near Vercellæ, (101 B. C.)
Results. The human avalanche, which for 13 years had alarmed the nations from the Danube to the Ebro, from the Seine to the Po, rested beneath the sod, or toiled under the yoke of slavery: the homeless people of the Cimbri and their comrades were no more.

II. The Marsic, or Social War.

Cause. The refusal of the Romans to admit the Italian confederates to the full right of citizenship.
Duration. Nearly four years, (91–88 B. C.)
Theatre of war. 1st. Northward in Picenum; 2d. In central Italy; 3d. In the south, in Samnium and Campania.
Parties. All the Italian nations, with the exception of the Latins, Etruscans, and Umbrians, against Rome.
Commanders. **Roman:** SULLA, Marius, Pompeius Strabo. **Italian:** Quintus Silo, C. Papius.
Result. The Italians acquire the Roman citizenship.

III. The Three Wars against Mithradates.

I. Cause. The murder of 80,000 Romans in Asia, by order of Mithradates.
Duration. Four years, (87–84 B. C.)
Theatre of war. Greece and the northwestern part of Asia Minor.
Parties. The nations of western Asia and the Greeks, against the Romans.
Commanders. **Roman:** Sulla, Fimbria. **Asiatic:** Mithradates, Neoptolemus, and Archelaus.
Battles. Gained by Sulla, Chæronea and Orchomenus.
Conditions of peace. Mithradates was forced to evacuate the western part of Asia Minor, to deliver up 70 men-of-war, and pay 2,000 talents ($3,000,000) as an indemnity for the expenses of the war.
Result. After four years of war, the Pontic king was again a client of the Romans, and a single and settled government was restored in Greece, Macedonia, and Asia Minor.
II. Cause. The violation of the Pontic frontier by the Roman governor, Murena.
Duration. Three years, (83–81 B. C.)
Theatre of war. The northern part of Asia Minor.
Battle. The Romans under Murena defeated near the Halys.
Result. The Roman forces are withdrawn from all Cappadocia.

The principal Wars between the Second and Third Mithradatic War.

1. The war against Sertorius, (80–72 B. C.) (See SERTORIUS.)
2. The servile war, or the war of the gladiators and slaves, (73–71 B. C.) They were defeated in two decisive battles by Crassus, in the second of which, Spartacus, their commander, lost his life.

3. The war against the pirates, (75–67 B. C.) Pompey, in two short campaigns, (of 40 and 49 days,) cleared first, the western, and then the eastern Mediterranean, almost without a battle.

Third Mithradatic War.

Cause. Nicomedes III., king of Bithynia, and brother-in-law of Mithradates, bequeaths his dominions to the Romans, who form them into a new province. Mithradates sends an army in Bithynia to drive them out.

Duration. Eleven years, (74–64 B. C.)

Theatre of war. Asia, west of the Tigris.

Commanders. **Roman:** Lucullus and POMPEY. **Asiatic:** Mithradates and Tigranes.

Battles. Roman victories near Tigranocerta, (69,) and Artaxata, (68.)

Result. Western Asia becomes subject to the Romans.

E. THE CIVIL WARS.

The grand feature of the civil contests in the Roman commonwealth was, throughout, the struggle of one favored class to maintain its exclusive privileges against another of a different origin, but blended with it in one body politic. The first phase of this struggle was that between the patricians and plebeians, strictly so called: when this contest terminated in the admission of the inferior class to substantially equal privileges, peace was for a time obtained. But the progress of external conquest gradually created a similar distinction of classes upon a larger scale. The citizens of Rome, patrician and plebeian, whether living in the city or established in colonies, jealously maintained the distinctive privileges, lucrative and influential as they were, which they enjoyed as such. The conquered states of Italy, admitted into alliance and a certain limited communion with Rome, but refused the complete franchise and its privileges, now stood in an analogous relation to the Roman people with that of the ancient plebeians to the patricians. The social wars formed the crisis of the long struggle for these privileges, and terminated in the enfranchisement of the Italians. However, it was still in the power of the Roman, or exclusive party, to neutralize these concessions to a considerable extent; and then it was that the Italians began, like the plebeians of old, to look for allies among the ranks of their opponents. Marius himself, the great leader of the foreign party, was an Italian; but many of his adherents were Romans, hostile to the domination of the old aristocratic families, and anxious, by whatever means, to obtain an ascendency for themselves. The contest, as is usual in such cases, gradually lost the character of a domestic and foreign, and acquired much of that of an aristocratic and popular struggle. Thus, during the success of the aristocratic party under Sulla, they tried to impose checks upon the influence of the plebeians, who had become almost identified with the Italians, or rather absorbed in their multitude. Pompey succeeded to the post of Sulla at the head of this party, while Cæsar assumed the leadership of the other. The one fought for the integrity of the senate, and such exclusive privileges as were still enjoyed by the old aristocratic families of Rome, of whom the senate was still almost entirely composed. The other was expected to break down every barrier which opposed the complete union of the Italian population in a single sovereign nation.

Duration. More than one hundred years, (133–30.)

Theatre of war. The countries surrounding the Mediterranean.

Result. The Roman Empire.

Number of wars. Eleven.

I. The Gracchi, (133–121.) (See GRACCHI.)

II. Marius and Sulla, (88–86.) (See these.)

III. The Marian party and Sulla, (83–79.) (See SULLA.)

IV. The war against Sertorius, (80–72.) (See this.)

V. Catiline's conspiracy, (66–62,) suppressed by Cicero, (the Catiline orations.) If Catiline really had any object at all, unless we suppose the crimes themselves to have been his object, it must have been that of making himself tyrant, and of becoming a second Sulla. Catiline was defeated and killed in Etruria by Petreius.

VI. Cæsar and Pompey, (49–48.) (See these.) Cæsar master of Italy in 60 days; Pompey flies to Greece; Cæsar forces Afranius and Petreius to capitulate in Spain; but loses two legions, under Curio, in Africa, where they are defeated by the Pompeian party, under Varus and King Juba; returns to Rome; is appointed dictator, an office which he holds only eleven days; crosses over into Greece; suffers a considerable loss at Dyrrhachium, but wins the decisive battle of Pharsalia, (B. C. 48.)

VII. The Pompeian party and Cæsar, (48–45.) Cæsar crosses over into Africa; defeats the Pompeians at Thapsus, (B. C. 46;) returns to Rome, and celebrates his four triumphs over Gaul, Egypt, Pontus, and Juba.

VIII. The civil war of Mutina, (44–43.) Antony is defeated, and joins Lepidus in Transalpine Gaul: Octavianus obtains the consulate. He soon deserts the party of the senate, and enters into negotiation with Antony and Lepidus. They form the second triumvirate. Hideous proscriptions, merciless and wholesale butcheries: 300 senators and 2,000 knights proscribed.

IX. Civil war between the oligarchy and the republicans. Double battle of Philippi. Death of Brutus and Cassius, (B. C. 42.) The fall of Brutus and Cassius was a final death-blow to the cause of the old Roman aristocracy.

X. Perusian war, (B. C. 41–40.) Quarrels of the oligarchy among themselves. Octavian had experienced considerable difficulty in arranging the distribution of lands among his veterans, the original proprietors requiring indemnification, and the soldiers themselves being dissatisfied with their allotments. At the instigation of Fulvia, L. Antonius, brother of the triumvir, came forward as the champion of these discontented spirits, but was compelled to surrender at Perusia, which is reduced to a heap of ashes, (41.) Antony and Octavianus are reconciled. Peace of Brundusium. (See this.)

XI. Octavian and Antony. Final rupture between them, brought to a crisis by Antony's ill treatment of his wife, Octavia, whom he divorces. Antony defeated at the battle of Actium, (B. C. 31;) he deserts his army, which surrenders to Augustus, after in vain waiting seven days for Antony's return. Death of Antony and Cleopatra. Egypt made a Roman province. Octavianus Cæsar sole master of the state, (B. C. 30,) and end of the republic.

THE EMPIRE.

A MONARCHY WITH REPUBLICAN FORMS.

I. The Constitution of the Empire from 30 B. C.–300 A. D.

I. The imperial prerogative. *a.* The levy of the army. Augustus was the commander of 47 legions, besides the auxiliary troops, amounting altogether to about 450,000 men. Over these forces the senate had not the least control, not even over the levying of the troops. *b.* The censorial, tribunitial, and pontifical authority. His edicts and ordinances had the force of laws.

II. The senate, limited by Augustus to 600 members. It was on the dignity of the senate that Augustus and his successors founded their new empire; and they affected on every occasion to adopt the language and principles of patricians. In the administration of their own powers they frequently consulted the great national council, and seemed to refer to its decision the most important concerns of peace and war. Rome, Italy, and the internal provinces were subject to the immediate jurisdiction of the senate. With regard to civil objects, it was the supreme court of appeal; with regard to criminal matters, a tribunal constituted for the trial of all offences that were committed by men in any public station, or that affected the peace and majesty of the Roman people. Every power was derived from their authority, every law was ratified by their sanction. Their regular meetings were held on three stated days in every month, the kalends, the nones, and the ides. The debates were conducted with decent freedom, and the emperors themselves, who gloried in the name of senators, sat, voted, and divided with their equals.

III. The magistrates. *a. The ancient magistracies.* The consuls were generally elected every two months, and retained merely the privilege of presiding in the senate and a share in the jurisdiction. The other officers of the republic were also retained, but with some alterations in their functions. *b. New officers.* Three new officers were created, who were entirely under the control of the emperor:

1. The prefect of the city, (præfectus urbi,) to whom the public order in Rome was confided.
2. The commanders of the guard, (præfecti prætorio,) who took precedence immediately after the emperor, and were in some respects his lieutenants even in civil affairs.
3. The præfectus annonæ, who superintended the supply of corn.

IV. The Empire. Rome, instead of being itself the state, became merely the capital of a more extended empire. The ordinary boundaries of this empire, which it sometimes exceeded, were, in Europe, the two great rivers of the Rhine and the Danube; in Asia, the Euphrates and the sandy desert of Syria; in Africa, likewise the desert. It thus included the fairest portions of the earth surrounding the Mediterranean sea. This empire was divided into two distinct parts: Italy and the provinces. The division of the provinces was made in such a manner that those in which no regular armies were kept were assigned to the senate; whereas those in which armies were stationed belonged to the emperor. His provinces yielded an incomparably larger revenue than those of the senate, but it may nevertheless have been insufficient to maintain the armies, which were stationed in fortified camps in those provinces. These fortified camps were distributed as follows: Three legions were sufficient for Britain. The principal strength lay upon the Rhine and Danube, and consisted of 16 legions. The defence of the Euphrates was intrusted to 8 legions. With regard to Egypt, Africa, and Spain, as they were far removed from any important scene of war, a single legion maintained the domestic tranquillity of each of those great provinces.

II. The Roman Emperors from 30 B.C. until 190 A. D.

Seventeen emperors ruled the Empire during the first 220 years of its existence.

The five emperors of the Julian house.

Augustus, Tiberius, Caligula, Claudius, Nero.

Explosion of the Augustan peace by simultaneous revolts in all parts of the empire at the death of Nero.

The three emperors proclaimed by the legions, (68, 69.)

Galba, Otho, and Vitellius.

The three Flavii, (69–96.)

Vespasianus, Titus, and Domitian.

The three statesmen, (96–138.)

Nerva, Trajan, and Hadrian.

The three Antonines, (138–192.)

Antoninus Pius, Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, Commodus.

During this long period of 220 years, the dangers inherent to a military government were, in a great measure, suspended. The soldiers were seldom roused to that fatal sense of their own strength, and of the weakness of the civil authority, which was, before and afterward, productive of such dreadful calamities. Caligula and Domitian were assassinated in their palace by their own domestics; the convulsions, however, which agitated Rome on their death were confined to the walls of the city. But Nero involved the whole empire in his ruin. Excepting only this short, though violent, eruption of military license, (68–69 A. D.,) the two centuries from Augustus to Commodus passed away unstained with civil blood, and undisturbed by revolutions. The emperor was elected by *the authority of the senate and the consent of the soldiers.*

MEDIÆVAL HISTORY.

I. FROM THE DIVISION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE UNTIL THE CRUSADES.

A. CHRISTENDOM.

I. Division and Subdivision of the Roman Empire.

After the death of the emperor Theodosius, (395 A. D.,) the Roman Empire, which had already existed four centuries, was divided into two parts:

I. The Greek Empire, or the Empire of the East — capital, CONSTANTINOPLE — which, as being the more important, was inherited by Arcadius, the elder son of Theodosius.

It contained two *prefectures*. *a.* The prefecture of the east, subdivided into five dioceses, (Thrace, Asia, Pontus, the East, and Egypt.) *b.* The prefecture of Illyricum, subdivided into two dioceses, (Macedonia and Dacia.)

II. The Latin Empire, or the Empire of the West — capital, ROME — assigned to the younger son of Theodosius, Honorius. It contained two prefectures. *a.* The prefecture of Italy, subdivided into three dioceses, (Italy, Western Illyricum, and Africa.) *b.* The prefecture of Gaul, also subdivided into three dioceses, (Gaul, Spain, and Britain.)

Beyond the pale of this *organized society*, surrounding the great basin of the Mediterranean, there existed a great *barbaric society*, also divided into two parts — the Germanic or Teutonic half, geographically adjoining the western; and the Scythian or Slavonic half, geographically adjoining the Eastern Empire.

The transition out of ancient into modern times consisted in nothing else than in the *violent* amalgamation of these two societies. In this process of amalgamation, however, the whole of the two opposed masses were not engaged at once. It was chiefly the western portion that was first involved.

II. The Great Migrations.

The determining cause of the precipitation of the German races on the Latin Empire was the sudden invasion of Europe (375 A. D.) by the Mongolian nation of the Huns. Subduing the Slavonic region of Europe, and establishing there a Hunnish empire, which superseded that of its previous conquerors, the Goths, these fearful Asiatic invaders produced a violent agitation among the Germanic peoples, and pressed them westward, as it were, in a mass — Goths, Vandals, Burgundians, Suevi, Alemanni, Franks, and Anglo-Saxons, altogether. The agitations produced in Europe by the Huns, and the consequent eruptions of the Germans into the provinces of the Western Empire, were protracted over a whole century. The aspect of the Latin Empire after the Germanic invasions were concluded — that is, in the latter half of the 5th century — may be represented as follows:

III. The Settlements of the Barbarians.

1. GAUL. In this diocese, the effect of successive invasions had been to superinduce upon the native Gallo-Roman population a medley of new ingredients, chiefly Franks, (in the northeast,) Burgundians, (in the southeast,) and Visigoths, (in the south, from the Loire to the Pyrenees.)

2. SPAIN. This diocese was overrun at first by three barbaric tribes — the Vandals, (in the south,) the Suevi, (in the north,) and the Alans, (in the middle of the peninsula, from sea to sea.) Subsequently, however, the Visigoths, crossing the Pyrenees from Gaul, subdued all the three, and converted Spain into a Visigothic kingdom.

3. AFRICA. The conquerors of this important diocese were the Vandals, who, crossing from Spain, made themselves masters of the country from the Pillars of Hercules to Carthage.

4. ITALY. Successive invasions had left numerous barbaric deposits among the feeble Latin natives of the central diocese — Visigoths, Franks, Vandals, Alemanni, Huns, etc.

5. WESTERN ILLYRICUM. Having been among the first portions of the Western Empire overrun by Alaric in his march from Thrace to Italy, the addition to the native population of this diocese consisted chiefly of Visigoths.

6. BRITAIN. Abandoned by its Roman garrisons as early as the year 410 A. D., this island became a prey to the Anglic and Saxon sea-rovers, whom the native Romanized Britons were obliged to call in to defend them against the Picts and Scots of the northern districts. The Britons, from the Channel to the Friths of Forth and Clyde, were speedily subdued by the new-comers.

As soon as this intermixture of the two societies had taken place, they began to act upon each other, and the result of this is modern society.

IV. The States which preceded the Empire of Charlemagne.

A. EMPIRES IN ITALY. *I. The Italian Empire, established by German mercenaries under Odoacer.*

Extent. Italy to the Alps. **Capital.** Ravenna. **Duration.** Eighteen years, (476–493.) (See ODOACER.)

II. The Empire of the Ostrogoths in Italy.

Extent. Italy to the Alps, and also the eastern shore of the Adriatic and the country between the Alps and Danube.

Capital. Ravenna. **Duration.** Sixty-four years, (490–554.) (See THEODORIC.)

III. The Byzantine dominion in Italy.

Extent. During 14 years (554–568) the whole of Italy; then it was confined to Ravenna and its district, Rome with its attached duchy, Genoa, Padua, Apulia, Calabria, and Naples.

Capital. Ravenna, the residence of the lieutenant of the Byzantine emperor, called exarch: hence the name given to these Byzantine possessions, of the Exarchate of Ravenna.

IV. The Empire of the Longobards.

Extent. At first the valley of the Po: gradually they extended their empire over the whole of Italy, with exception of a few strips of land on the coast. They confined the exarchate within the limits of Calabria and the district around Naples, and even laid claim to the sovereignty of Rome and its territory.

Capital. Pavia. **Duration.** One hundred and six years, (568–774.) (See ALBOIN.)

B. EMPIRES IN AFRICA. *I. The Vandal Empire in Africa.*

Extent. The whole of the northern coast of Africa, from the Atlantic to Cyrenaica, and also the Balearic islands, Sardinia, Corsica, and Sicily, (first the whole of Sicily, but since 493, only the north-western part.)

Capital. Carthage. **Duration.** One hundred and five years, (429–534.) (See GENSERIC.)

II. The Byzantine dominion in Africa.

Extent. The whole of the northern coast, from the Atlantic to the Red sea.
Capital. Carthage. **Duration.** One hundred and sixteen years, (534–650.)

III. The Arabian dominion in Africa. (See below, under ISLAM.)

C. EMPIRES IN SPAIN. *I. The Vandal Empire in Southern Spain.* (Vandalitia = Andalusia.)

Extent. The country south of the Sierra Morena. **Capital.** Hispalis. **Duration.** 20 years, (409–429.)

II. The Suevic Empire.

Extent. At first (from 409–429) Galicia, then Southern Spain, Vandalitia, but at length they were again confined to Galicia. **Capital.** Hispalis. **Duration.** 176 years, (409–585.)

III. The Visigothic Empire.

Extent. At first, only the country between the Pyrenees, the Mediterranean, and the Ebro; since 585, the whole of Spain.

Capital. Toletum. **Duration.** 126 years, (585–711.)

IV. The Caliphate of Cordova. (See ABASSIDES, and Appendix, page 195.)

D. EMPIRES IN GAUL. *I. The Burgundian Empire.*

Extent. The valley of the Rhone. **Duration.** 126 years, (407–533.)

II. The Empire of the Franks, under the Merovingians.

Extent. The country between the Rhine and the Loire. **Capital.** Paris. **Duration.** 266 years, (486–752.) (See CLOVIS.) After his death, the empire was divided among his four sons, Thierry, Chlodomer, Childebert, and Clothaire, who fixed their respective residences at Metz, Orleans, Paris, and Soissons. They were reunited again under Clothaire, the youngest of the sons of Clovis, who survived all his brothers and their descendants. It was again divided in 567. (See BRUNEHILDA.)

V. The Empire of Charlemagne.

Extent. From the Ebro to the Raab, and from Benevento to the Eider. including all France, Germany, parts of Hungary, Italy, and Spain, besides some of the islands of the Mediterranean. **Capitals.** Rome and Aix-la-Chapelle.

A. THE WARS OF CHARLEMAGNE. I. Conquest of Lombardy. Cause. The king of the Lombards, Desiderius, had taken possession of the patrimony of St. Peter, (the grant of Pepin.)

Duration. A few months, (774 A. D.)

Result. Overthrow of the kingdom of the Lombards. Charlemagne is proclaimed king of Italy.

II. Wars with the Saxons. Cause. The resistance of the Saxons to the introduction of Christianity into their country.

Duration. Thirty-two years, (772–804.)

Result. The Saxons are incorporated in the Empire of Charlemagne, and are Christianized.

III. War in Spain. Cause. The Arabic governor of Saragossa asked and obtained the assistance of Charlemagne against Abder-rhaman.

Duration. A few months, (778 A. D.)

Result. The country between the Ebro and the Pyrenees was conquered by Charlemagne and annexed to this empire, under the name of the Spanish March.

IV. War with the Avars. Cause. Duke Tassilo, of Bavaria, (son-in-law of the conquered Lombard king.) united with the Avares, and raised the standard of rebellion.

Duration. Thirteen years, (788–801 A. D.)

Result. Bavaria was incorporated with the Frankish Empire, and the country of the Avares (between the Ens and Raab) was conquered and transformed into the Avaric March.

V. Charles, the son of Charlemagne, subdued the Danes and Wilses.

Remark. The wars of Charlemagne were totally different from those of the previous dynasty. They were not dissensions between tribe and tribe, or chief and chief, nor expeditions engaged in for the purpose of settlement or pillage. They were systematic wars, inspired by a political purpose and commanded by a public necessity. Their purpose was that of ending the invasions. He repelled the Saracens. The Saxons and Slavonians, against whom merely defensive arrangements were not sufficient, he attacked and subjugated in their native forests.

B. CORONATION OF CHARLEMAGNE AS EMPEROR OF THE WEST. Pope Leo III. induced Charlemagne to visit Rome, and to chastise his enemies. In return for the assistance thus afforded, Charlemagne, on Christmas day of the year 800, was crowned by the Pope **Emperor of the West.** As such he also assumed a lofty station at the side of the Roman pontiff in spiritual affairs: a Frankish synod saluted him as *regent of the true religion.* The entire

state of which he was the chief now assumed a color and form wherein the spiritual and temporal elements were completely blended. The union between Emperor and Pope served as a model for that between count and bishop. Not only was the secular power to lend its arm to the spiritual, but the spiritual to aid the temporal by its excommunications. The great empire reminds us of a vast neutral ground in the midst of a world filled with carnage and devastation; where an iron will imposes peace on forces generally in a state of mutual hostility and destruction, and fosters and shelters the germ of civilization; so guarded was it on all sides by impregnable marches.

C. THE SUCCESSORS OF CHARLEMAGNE. (See GENEALOGY, X.) The sovereign power becomes enfeebled under the descendants of Charlemagne; and the chieftains of the various provinces acquire a power so nearly approaching to sovereignty as to be scarcely distinguishable except in name, rendering only a nominal obedience to the sovereign.

VI. Commencement of the history of Germany, France, and Italy, as separate states, at the partition of the Carlovingian Empire, at Verdun, 843 A. D.

Immediately after the death of Louis the Pious, son and successor of Charlemagne, a quarrel arose among his sons about the inheritance, Lothar, as emperor, claiming the whole. A battle was fought in 841, near the village of Fontenay, in which Lothar was defeated. The war, however, continued until 843, when Lothar found himself compelled to conclude with his brothers the famous treaty of Verdun.

In this partition treaty, the Teutonic principle of equal division among heirs triumphed over the Roman one of the transmission of an indivisible empire: the practical sovereignty of all three brothers was admitted in their respective territories, a barren precedence only reserved to Lothar with the imperial title which he already enjoyed. A more important result was the separation of the Gallic and German nationalities. Their difference of feeling took now a permanent shape: modern Germany proclaims the era of 843 the beginning of her national existence.

I. Charles the Bald received Francia Occidentalis, or Neustra and Aquitaine, (the country west of the Scheld, Meuse, Saone, and Rhone.) A corrupt tongue was spoken here, equally removed from Latin and from modern French.

II. Lothar, who, as emperor, must possess the two capitals, Rome and Aix-la-Chapelle, received a long and narrow kingdom, stretching from the North sea to the Mediterranean. It had no national basis, and soon dissolved into the separate sovereignties of Italy, Burgundy, and Lotharingia, or Lorraine.

III. Lewis received all east of the Rhine — Franks, Saxons, Bavarians, Austria, Carinthia, etc. Throughout these regions German was spoken.

The Germans were divided at that time in five separate nations: the Franks, Suabians, Bavarians, Saxons, and Lorrainers, each under its own duke.

VII. The Normans.

The three new kingdoms were soon disquieted by intestine commotions, the quarrels of their sovereigns with one another, and perpetual contests with a wild piratical race called the Normans, or Northmen, who availed themselves of the distracted condition of the empire to make descents on the coasts, especially of western France. (See NORMANS IN FRANCE.)

The history of the Normans connects the two great European events of the middle ages, the *migrations* and the *crusades.* On the coasts of France, where they conquered the country which still bears their name, (Normandy,) and then in England, Italy, and Sicily, and finally in Asia, they were the last northern emigrants, who settled by force of arms in southern regions. Their conquest of England, in 1066, was accompanied by an immigration of the conquering nation; and hence was the cause of universal change in its language, manners, and constitution, and the origin of the long connection and the long warfare that subsisted between England and France in the middle ages. (See WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.)

B. ISLAM.

I. The four first Caliphs, (631–661, A. D.)

The impulse communicated to the Arabian race by the enthusiasm of Mohammed (see this) did not cease with his death. The whole nation had been roused to an unexampled pitch of religious zeal, and were eager to continue the work which Mohammed had begun. Accordingly the reigns of the caliphs — as the successors of Mohammed in the conjunct spiritual and temporal sovereignty of Arabia were called — were one long series of invasions, wars and conquests, undertaken for the express purpose of adding new countries to the Mohammedan Empire. The four first caliphs were:

Abu-Bekr, (632–634,) the father-in-law of Mohammed, who collected the sayings of Mohammed into a book, called the Koran. Under him Syria and Mesopotamia were subdued.

Omar, (634–643,) another father-in-law of Mohammed. Under him Egypt was conquered, and the whole of the northern coast of Africa was overrun.

Othman, (643–656,) a son-in-law of the Prophet, who conquered Persia.

Ali, (656–661,) another son-in-law of the Prophet. (See FALL OF THE FATIMITES.)

Thus, before the middle of the 7th century, or within 30 years after the death of Mohammed, the whole of the immense tract of country lying between Algiers in Africa, and Cabul in Central Asia, was covered by a race of Arabian warriors, burning with religious fervor, and zealous for the propagation of their faith and their language over the entire surface of the world. The capital of this great empire and the seat of the caliphate was the town of Kufa, on the Euphrates; Mecca, however retaining its pre-eminence as the sacred or holy city, whither all true Moslems were to go in pilgrimage, and toward which they were to turn in prayer.

II. The Ommaiad Caliphs, (660–750, A. D.)

A. THE FOUNDER OF THE RACE. (See MOAWIYAH.)

B. THE INTERNAL REGULATIONS.

Under these caliphs the political centre of the empire was transferred to Damascus. Here the caliph resided, while his emirs or commanders led his

troops in new directions, and governed distant provinces in his name. *Cadis* or judges were likewise appointed to administer the laws of the Koran in a few of the principal cities; and in every town there were preachers, who, acting as the deputies of the caliph in his spiritual capacity, read and expounded the Koran on Fridays in buildings called mosques. A separate class of functionaries, called *muftis*, prepared such new laws as were necessary to carry out the provisions of the Koran.

C. GREATEST EXTENT OF THE CALIPHATE. The Mohammedan Empire attained its fullest extent in the reign of Walid I. (705–715.) In the reign of his predecessor the Arabian arms had been carried into Morocco and the Atlantic coast of Africa; and his emir, Okba, had even meditated the invasion of Spain. That great exploit, however, was reserved for Musa, the governor of Africa, under the caliph Walid. (See TARIK.) Meanwhile, other emirs of the caliph Walid were extending his power in Asia. Bokhara, Turkistan, and other countries lying east of the Caspian were rapidly subdued; and under one bold leader, the Arabians even penetrated into northern India. In the caliphate of Soliman, the successor of Walid, (715–717,) the greater portion of Asia Minor was conquered by the Arabs, who even proceeded to lay siege to Constantinople.

The incompetence, however, of Soliman and his successors, Yezid II. and Hesham, (720–743,) arrested the progress of the Arabic conquests.

The wondrous spread of the power of the Arabs over so large a portion of the earth, and especially their daring invasion and conquest of Spain, had struck mingled admiration and terror into the soul of all Christendom. As it was known to be their intention to propagate their faith with the sword as far as they could, it did not seem improbable that they would cross the Pyrenees, invade Gaul, and overrun all Central Europe.

D. THE ARABS IN GAUL. With the exception of some mountainous districts in the western Pyrenees, the whole of the Spanish peninsula fell under the power of the Arabs, or, as they now began to be called, the Saracens, (that is, Eastern people,) or Moors, (that is, men of Mauritania.) But in the year 718, Al-haur, the fifth emir in succession from Tarik, ventured on an incursion into Gaul. His successor repeated the incursion, took Carcassone and Narbonne; and had almost obtained possession of Toulouse, when he was defeated and slain (721) by an army of Goths and Franks under the command of Eudes, the duke of Aquitaine, whose power was then nearly supreme in the south of France. This defeat, however, was only a temporary check to the Saracens. Again and again they invaded Gaul, and in a few years their language and their religion prevailed over a large tract to the north of the Pyrenees, and the vineyards of Gascony and the city of Bordeaux were possessed by the sovereign of Damascus and Samarcand. Even these limits did not satisfy them. In the year 728, Abder-rhaman was appointed by the caliph to the emirship of Spain. Full of the conquering spirit of his race, he resolved that not only France, but all Europe, should be included within the sway of the Moslems. Accordingly, invading France (732) at the head of the largest Mohammedan army that had ever been assembled in Europe, he pushed on, defeating all before him, as far as the river Loire.

E. CHARLES MARTEL. But at the hour of the greatest need, Providence raised up a champion for Christendom. This was Charles Martel, who was summoned by the Franks, (whose virtual ruler he had been for 17 years,) and even by his rival, Eudes of Aquitaine, to place himself at the head of the nation. He obeyed the summons, gathered a large army, and came up with the Saracens between Tours and Poitiers. A desperate battle ensued, which was protracted over seven days; but on the 7th day the Saracens were defeated with great slaughter, Abder-rhaman himself being slain on the field. This great victory (October, 732,) arrested forever the progress of the Mohammedan arms in western Europe, and procured for Charles the expressive surname of "the Hammer," by which he is known in history.

While the bravery of the Franks thus struck a blow at the Saracen power in Europe, the Saracen Empire was losing strength from internal causes. The incapacity of the later caliphs of the Ommaiad dynasty brought on a revolution at Damascus; and after a short contest a new dynasty seized on the caliphate.

III. The Abassides, (750–1258, A. D.)

A. THE DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE OF THE CALIPHS. The name is derived from their ancestor Abbas, one of the uncles of Mohammed. A bloody persecution was begun by the first caliph of this dynasty against all the Ommaiads, one of whom (Abder-rhaman) succeeded in escaping to Spain. Here the Saracens, who took the part of the persecuted dynasty, received him with open arms, and accepted him as their king. (See ABASSIDES.) Thus there arose two distinct Mohammedan powers in the world.

B. THE CALIPHS OF BAGDAD. 1. The Arabic Empire proper, extending in a long tract westward, from India to the shores of the Atlantic, and governed by the Abasside caliphs through their emirs. The capital of this empire was transferred to Bagdad, (on the western bank of the Tigris,) which had been built on a magnificent scale, by Al Mansur, and soon became the capital of the commercial enterprise and civilization of the Eastern world.

C. THE CALIPHS OF CORDOVA. 2. The Saracen kingdom of Spain, extending from Gibraltar to the river Aude in Languedoc, and governed by a branch of the house of the Ommaiads. Their capital was the ancient city of Cordova, after which the kingdom was named the caliphate of Cordova. After this partition of the Arabic Empire, scarcely any new conquests were made by the Arabs.

D. CHARACTER OF THE ARABIC INVASIONS. The Arabic invasions are not to be regarded as a mere series of violent or barbaric exploits, that produced no good effects. On the contrary, they were a service to the cause of civilization. From the Arabs, and especially from those of Spain, modern Europe has derived, among other things, the numeral characters, the art of paper-making, cotton manufacture, the art of preparing the finer kinds of leather, peculiar methods of tempering steel, and the use of rhyme in metre. Much of the spirit of modern romance and chivalry may also be traced to these Orientals, who also set the example of commercial enterprise to the European nations by their bold navigation of the Eastern seas.

II. THE CRUSADES.

I. The Seven Crusades.

The Crusades are usually reckoned as seven in number; the first and greatest beginning in 1096, and the last and least terminating in 1291.

THE FIRST CRUSADE. Cause. The taking of Jerusalem by the Turks, who compelled the Christians to pay a heavy tax for the privilege of visiting the Holy City. This excited throughout Christendom a general desire to make Palestine a Christian kingdom.

Preachers of the Crusade. Pope Urban II. and Peter the Hermit.

Duration. About four years, (1096–1100.)

Leader. When Pope Urban II. announced the Crusade at Clermont, in November, 1095, he secured to himself the leading position in the enterprise, by naming the bishop Adhemar of Puy as his legate and representative with the army, and by officially announcing to the Greek emperor Alexius the forthcoming help against the Turks.

The march to Constantinople. The crusade was opened by the march of about 300,000 men, who, in four bands, marched through central Europe, Hungary, and the Danube countries to Constantinople. They were led by Walter the Penniless, Peter the Hermit, Gotschalk, and others. The fate of these four bands was terrible. The Hungarians and Bulgarians, through whose territory these crusaders marched, were indignant at the ravages which they committed, and, after harassing them indirectly, openly attacked them. Two bands only reached Constantinople, and crossed over into Asia, where they were ultimately cut to pieces by the Turks.

The regular army consisted of six different divisions, led by Godfrey of Bouillon, Hugh of Vermandois, Stephen of Blois (and Robert Curthose), Robert of Flanders, Bohemond of Tarentum (and Tancred), and Raymond of Toulouse. In the autumn of 1096, the first princely troops arrived at Constantinople; others followed in rapid succession, till the spring of 1097, some by water, some by land. The northern French mostly came through Italy and Epirus, the Provençals through Dalmatia, and the Lorrainers through Hungary.

From Constantinople to Jerusalem. In May, 1097, the crusaders held their first muster in the plains of Bithynia. From thence they marched toward Nicæa, which fell into their hands, July, 1097. The crusaders then marched amid fatigue and hardship diagonally across Asia Minor, and at length turned the north-eastern angle of the Levant, and marched down the course of the Orontes upon the most important and best fortified of all the Syrian towns, Antioch; seven months were consumed in its siege. At length, (June, 1098,) they took it, to be besieged in their turn by 200,000 Saracens. On the 28th of June, this vast host was defeated before the walls of Antioch, and the way was then open to Jerusalem. The siege of Jerusalem began June 7th, 1099: it was taken by storm July 15th, 1099.

The political results of the First Crusade. The restoration of the best part of Asia Minor to the Greek Empire, and the conversion of Syria and a considerable portion of the East into a dominion held by Latin princes, and governed according to the principles of western feudalism. Three distinct Christian sovereignties were formed:

1st. The kingdom of Jerusalem, conferred on Godfrey of Bouillon. (See this.)
2d. The principality of Antioch, conferred on Bohemond of Tarentum.
3d. The principality of Edessa, in Mesopotamia, conferred on Baldwin, the brother of Godfrey.

THE SECOND CRUSADE. Cause. The taking of Edessa by the Fatimites of Egypt. All Christians were put to the sword, or sold as slaves.

Preacher of the Crusade. Bernard, abbot of Clairvaux. (See St. Bernard.)

Duration. About three years, (1147–1149.)

Leaders. Emperor Conrad III., and Louis VII., king of France.

The march to Constantinople. The two armies marched down the Danube to Constantinople, in the summer of 1147. The policy of the Greek court was now hostile to the crusade, and the Greek emperor, Manuel Comnenus, did every thing to ruin the enterprise.

From Constantinople to Damascus. Misled by Greek scouts, the army of Conrad was cut to pieces by the Turks near Iconium; that of Louis was wrecked among the defiles of the Pisidian mountains. The relics of the two armies made their way into Syria, where, in co-operation with the Christian princes of Antioch and Jerusalem, they laid siege to Damascus.

The result of the Second Crusade. The crusade was a total failure. They were unable to take Damascus, and in 1149, Conrad and Louis returned to Europe, having lost in two years about a million of men.

THE THIRD CRUSADE. Cause. The taking of Jerusalem by Saladin in 1187, which put an end to the kingdom of Jerusalem.

Preacher of the Crusade. William, archbishop of Tyre.

Duration. About four years, (1189–1193.)

Leaders. Emperor Frederick I., King Philip Augustus of France, and King Richard I. of England, (Cœur de Lion.)

The march to Acre. The emperor marched from Ratisbon along the Danube, fought his way through the dominions of the Greeks, (now undisguisedly hostile to the crusaders,) and advanced through Asia Minor, where he was drowned, (see Frederick I.;) only a part of his army reached Syria, where it joined the remains of the army of the kingdom of Jerusalem. They marched and laid siege to Acre. Soon the French and English monarchs arrived with their fleet, and to the crusaders, thus assisted, Acre surrendered, after a siege of 23 months, (July 12th, 1191.)

Result of the Third Crusade. The taking of Acre was the sole result of the third crusade. Rivalries and jealousies sprang up among the Christian leaders, especially between the kings of France and England. Philip abandoned the crusade and returned to France. The lion-hearted Richard remained some time

longer, and at last agreed to a truce with Saladin, the terms of which were on the whole honorable to the Christians, and creditable to the liberality and tolerance of the Mohammedans.

THE FOURTH CRUSADE. Cause. The desire of getting again possession of Jerusalem, which had been, ever since 1187, in the power of the Ayoubite sultans of Egypt.

Preacher of the Crusade. Fulco of Neuilly.

Duration. About three years, (1202–1204.)

Leaders. Dandolo, doge of Venice, Thiebault of Champagne, Simon of Montfort, Boniface of Montferrat, Baldwin of Flanders, etc.

The march to Constantinople. The crusading armament assembled at Venice. The doge Dandolo exerted himself to persuade the crusaders to turn their arms in the direction of Constantinople before proceeding to the Holy Land. They were the more easily persuaded to do this because hopes were held out that their interference might tend to bring about a reconciliation between the Latin and Greek Churches. They went first to Zara, in Dalmatia, which had revolted from Venice, and from thence to Constantinople, which was finally taken, (1204.)

Result of the Fourth Crusade. The conquest of the Byzantine Empire, of which the crusaders hastened to avail themselves. Baldwin, count of Flanders, was elected to the dignity of Emperor of the East, one-fourth part of the territories of the empire accompanying that dignity. Thus was founded the *Latin Empire*, which lasted from 1204–1261. The remaining three-fourths (over which Baldwin was feudal sovereign) were divided among the powers who had taken the chief part in the crusade — the Venetians taking the greater part, and the French and Italian nobles taking the rest. The only lasting result of this crusade was an enormous extension of Venetian commerce.

THE FIFTH CRUSADE. Three different expeditions bear the name of the Fifth Crusade.

1st. An abortive expedition for the recovery of the Holy Land, by Andrew, king of Hungary, in 1217.

2d. An expedition for the conquest of Damietta in Egypt, by John of Brienne, which was taken, but lost again in 1221.

3d. The crusade of Emperor Frederick II. (See this.)

Result of the Crusade of Emperor Frederick II. After the departure of Frederick, the Christians in Palestine enjoyed the fruits of his military prowess and wise policy, living in quiet and prosperity in the cities and territories which Frederick had compelled the sultan of Egypt to cede. This prosperity, however, was suddenly put an end to by the violent irruption into Syria and Egypt of a new race of conquerors — the Charismian Turks, from the borders of the Caspian, (1244.) These invaders carried all before them, established themselves in Syria, and burned and pillaged Jerusalem, after defeating the Christian forces. The fruit of the crusades was thus once more lost.

THE SIXTH CRUSADE. Cause. The taking of Jerusalem by the Charismian Turks.

Duration. One year, (1248–1249.)

Leader. Louis IX., king of France. (See St. Louis.)

Theatre of war. The Delta of the Nile. Damietta was taken, but the crusaders were soon afterward defeated at Massourah, where Louis was made prisoner with nearly the whole of his army, by the sultan of Egypt. They were, however, allowed to ransom themselves. This provoked the rage of the body-guard of the sultan, who was murdered. This made an end to the Ayoubite dynasty in Egypt.

Result of the Sixth Crusade. After the murder of the sultan, the Mamelukes — Tatar slaves who had served as the sultan's body-guard — appointed their own commander, Ibek, to the Egyptian throne, (1250.) The result of the sixth crusade, therefore, was the establishment of the Mameluke power in Egypt. They ruled Egypt until 1517.

THE SEVENTH AND LAST CRUSADE. Cause. The conquest of the greater part of the Christian possessions by the Mamelukes.

Duration. Hardly one year, (1270.)

Leader. Louis IX., king of France.

Theatre of war. Tunis, where Louis IX. first landed, and where a pestilence carried off himself and the greater part of his army.

Result of the Seventh Crusade. After this defeat, the Pope failed in all his endeavors to excite any enthusiasm for the holy war. One Syrian fortress after the other fell into the hands of the victorious Mussulmans, until at length, and last of all, the dearly won Acre (Ptolemais) was captured, after an obstinate resistance, in 1292, just at the time when Pope Boniface VIII. took the first steps toward his great conflict with Philip the Fair, king of France, which resulted in the deepest humiliation of the Papal power. The system of Gregory VII. declined simultaneously in Europe and in Asia.

II. General Results of the Crusades.

A. POLITICAL CONSEQUENCES. I. To the hierarchy. 1. The exaltation of the Papal power as the leader and originator of plans which the temporal sovereigns were called on to execute. 2. The authority of the Pope over the bishops was increased. 3. The wealth of the Church was increased by the many opportunities it had of purchasing at a cheap rate the lands of the crusaders.

II. To the sovereigns. Increase of the estates belonging immediately to the crown.

III. To the nobility. The spirit of aristocracy developed itself in the formation of the knightly character.

IV. To the citizens. The growth and prosperity of the cities were promoted by the absence of the nobles.

V. To the peasants. A free peasantry was gradually taking the place of the serfs.

B. CONSEQUENCES TO TRADE, etc. I. To maritime enterprise. The north Italian republics (especially Venice, Genoa, and Pisa,) obtained possession of most of the seaports and islands of the eastern basin of the Mediterranean, and of the Black sea, the command of the latter securing to their merchants a monopoly of the northern trade, and a considerable share in that of Asia.

II. To manufactures, etc. The mulberry, as food for silkworms, Indian corn, (Turkey wheat,) and the sugar-cane, were brought before the notice of western agriculturists; new drugs were introduced to the medical practice of Europe by the knowledge acquired of the state of medicine among the Arabs; and it was the same with other arts.

III. The Division of the East at the end of the 13th Century.

Before the end of the crusades the caliphate of Bagdad had been destroyed by the Mongolians, (1258,) and the Latin Empire by the Greeks, (1260.) The East was therefore, at the end of the 13th century, divided into three parts:

1. The Mongolian Empire, stretching from China to Russia, and consisting of a miscellany of populations governed by pagan khans.
2. The restored Greek or Byzantine Empire, under Palæologus and his successors.
3. The Mohammedan nations, governed either by Turks tributary to the Mongol conquerors, or by independent Turkish dynasties. Of these dynasties the most powerful was that of the Mamelukes of Egypt, who successfully disputed Syria with the Mongols. They became masters of Syria, and did not cease their exertions till they had rooted out of that country every vestige of Christian colonization, and expelled the last relics of the crusades, (1291.)

MODERN HISTORY.

I. THE TRANSITION PERIOD.

I. The Anglo-Scotch War.

Cause. The refusal of John Baliol to acknowledge Edward I. as his feudal superior.
Duration. Thirty-three years, (1296–1328.)
Theatre of war. Southern Scotland.
Object of the war. The union of Great Britain under the English sovereign.
Result of the war. The independence of Scotland.
Periods. *1st period,* (1296–1307.) Success of the English. The times of Wallace, the hero of Stirling. *2d period,* (1307–1328.) Reverses of the English. The times of Bruce, the hero of Bannockburn.
Great battles. *Gained by the English:* Dunbar, (1296.) Falkirk, (1298.) *Gained by the Scotch:* Stirling, (1297.) Bannockburn, (1314.)

II. The Anglo-French Struggle.

Cause. The claim of Edward III. to the throne of France. (See VALOIS IN FRANCE, and GENEALOGY, III.)
Duration. One hundred and fourteen years, (1339–1453.)
Theatre of war. Western Europe, from the mouth of the Schelde, (in Flanders,) to the Ebro, (in Spain.)
Parties. The English and the Flemish against the French. + Scotch
Object of the war. The union of England and France under the Plantagenets.
Result of the war. Consolidation of France. The Plantagenets lose all their French possessions except Calais.
Periods. *1st period,* (1339–1368.) Success of the English. The times of the Black Prince. *2d period,* (1368–1380.) Reverses of the English. The times of Du Guesclin. *3d period,* (1380–1415.) The exhaustion of both parties. *4th period,* (1415–1429.) Success of the English. The times of Henry V. and Bedford. *5th period,* (1429–1453.) Final expulsion of the English.
Great battles. *Gained by the English:* Creçy, (1346,) Poitiers, (1356,) Azincourt, (1415.)

III. The War of the Roses.

Cause. The claim of Richard, duke of York, to the English crown. (See YORK, and GENEALOGY, I.)
Duration. Thirty years, (1455–1485.)
Theatre of war. England, (north of the Thames.)
Parties. The house of York, or the white roses, and the house of Lancaster, or the red roses.
Object of the war. To place the house of York upon the English throne. At length, after the throne had been uneasily occupied for 24 years by three princes of the house of York — Edward IV., (1461–1483;) Edward V., (1483,) and Richard III., (1483–1485,) — peace was restored to England by the accession of Henry VII. (See BOSWORTH FIELD.)
Result of the war. The extermination of the ancient nobility of England.
Periods. *1st period,* (1455–1460.) The times of York. (See this.) *2d period,* (1460–1471.) The times of Warwick the king-maker. (See this.) *3d period,* (1471–1485.) The times of Gloucester, (Richard III.)
Great battles. The bloodiest battle of the whole war was the battle of Towton Field, (1461,) in which the Lancastrians were totally defeated, and which gave the crown to the house of York, (Edward IV.) Other battles of this war were: St. Albans, Bloreheath, Northampton, Mortimer's Cross, Barnet, Tewksbury, gained by the Yorkists; Wakefield and Bosworth, gained by the Lancastrians.

IV. The Franco-Italian Wars.

Cause. The claim of Charles VIII., king of France, to the throne of Naples, bequeathed to his father, Louis XI., by Charles of Maine. (See GENEALOGY, VIII.) His successor, Louis XII., had also a claim to Milan as grandson of Valentina Visconti.

Duration. Twenty-three years, (1494–1516.)
Theatre of war. The whole of Italy.
Parties. The French against the Spaniards. The different Italian states allied themselves sometimes with the one, sometimes with the other.
Object of the war. To bring Italy under French influence.
Result of the war. Italy comes entirely under Spanish influence, and becomes partly even a Spanish province.
Periods. *1st period,* (1494–1496.) The expedition of Charles VIII. Conquest and loss of Naples. *2d period,* (1499–1500.) The expedition of Louis XII. Conquest of Milan. *3d period,* (1501–1504.) Naples entirely lost to France; it becomes a Spanish province. *4th period,* (1508–1513.) The times of Julius II. He endeavors to drive both French and Spanish from Italy. *5th period,* (1515–1516.) The expedition of Francis I.
Great battles. *Gained by the French:* Fornova, (1495;) Novara, (1500;) Agnadello, (1509;) Ravenna, (1512;) Marignano, (1515.) *Gained by the Spanish:* Garigliano, (1503.)
Great commanders. **French:** Gaston de Foix and Bayard. **Spanish:** Consalvo de Cordova.

V. The Wars between the Emperor Charles V., and Francis I., King of France.

Causes. 1. The occupation of Naples by the Spanish. 2. The occupation of Navarre by the Spanish. 3. The occupation of Milan by the French. 4. The occupation of the duchy of Burgundy by the French.
Duration. Twenty-three years, (1521–1544.)
Number of wars. Four.
THE FIRST WAR. Cause. The refusal of Francis I. to cede Milan to Sforza, who had been confirmed in his claims upon it by the emperor, the feudal sovereign of Milan.
Duration. Six years, (1521–1526.)
Theatre of war. Lombardy; also Provence and Picardy.
Object of the war. To drive the French out of Italy.
Result of the war. The French driven out of Italy.
Parties. The emperor, in league with the Pope, England, and Venice, against France.
Battles. *Gained by the Spaniards:* Bicocca, (1522,) and Pavia, (1525.) Francis is taken prisoner.
Peace. At Madrid, in 1526. Francis renounces forever all claims to Milan, Genoa, and Naples, and promises to restore the duchy of Burgundy to the emperor.
Remark. Between the first and second war falls the Turkish war of 1526, and the battle of Mohacz. (See this.)
THE SECOND WAR. Cause. The refusal of Francis to give up the duchy of Burgundy.
Duration. Three years, (1527–1529.)
Theatre of war. Especially central Italy. Sack of Rome, in 1527, by the imperialists.
Object of the war. To break down the power of the emperor.
Result of the war. The emperor is more powerful than ever.
Parties. The Pope, the Venetians, and Sforza had formed a league against the emperor, with Francis I., then at Cognac. Hence its name, the *League of Cognac.*
Commanders. *On the Spanish side:* The constable of Bourbon, (*a Frenchman;*) DIED DURING THE SACK OF ROME; George Frundsberg (*a German;*) and Andreas Doria, (*a Genoese.*) *On the French side:* Lautrec, St. Pol.
Peace. At Cambray, in 1529. It was founded on the treaty of Madrid. Francis was released from his obligation to surrender Burgundy, and on the other hand renounced all his pretensions in Italy, and engaged not to countenance any practices against the emperor either in Italy or Germany. Francis abandoned all his allies, both in Italy and the Netherlands, while Charles did not desert a single one, and obtained a pardon for the constable's family and adherents.
Remark. Thus were virtually terminated the great wars of the French in Italy, which had lasted thirty-six years. In these wars the French had repeatedly displayed a capability of making rapid and brilliant conquests, without the power of retaining them, or turning them to any substantial advantage.
THE THIRD WAR. Cause. The emperor takes possession of Milan on the death of Sforza, in 1535.
Duration. Three years, (1536–1538.)
Theatre of war. Piemont and Provence.
Object of the war. To drive the Spaniards out of Milan, and to obtain possession of Savoy.
Result of the war. The Spaniards retain Milan, but Francis obtains Savoy and part of Piemont.
Parties. Francis, in league with Sultan Soliman, against the emperor.
Peace. The 10 years truce of Nice, (1538.) Converted soon afterward (1539) into a "perpetual peace" by the treaty of Toledo. Francis retains Savoy and part of Piemont, Charles the rest of Piemont. Charles promises to invest Francis with Milan.
THE FOURTH WAR. Cause. Charles refuses to invest Francis with Milan.
Duration. Three years, (1542–1544.)
Theatre of war. Northern France, (Picardy and Champagne.)
Object of the war. The division of France between the emperor and Henry VIII. of England.
Result of the war. Every thing remained as before.
Parties. The emperor, in league with Henry VIII. of England. Francis I., in league with the Turks.
Peace. At Crespy, near Laon, (1544.) Each party was to restore the places taken by either since the treaty of Nice. Francis and the emperor should co-operate in restoring the union of the Church; that is, should enter into an alliance against the Protestants, and should defend Christendom against the Turks.

II. RELIGIOUS WARS.

I. Smalcaldian War. The first Religious War of Germany.

Cause. The Protestant princes of Germany, with the Saxon elector at their head, had met at Smalcalde, (in Upper Saxony,) and formed a league for the defence of their liberties, (December, 1530.) During the fourteen following years, there had been little interference with the religious liberties of the Germans. But in 1545, the emperor Charles V. prepared to restore Catholicism in Germany by force of arms. He began by calling a diet at Worms, at which resolutions were passed forbidding the dissemination of Anti-Catholic tenets. The Protestant princes, seeing that Charles was now in earnest, renewed their league, and took up arms.

Duration. Seven years, (1546–1552.)

Theatre of war. South-western Germany and Saxony.

Object of the war. The annihilation of the political and religious liberties of the members of the German Empire.

Result of the war. The liberties of the members of the empire are placed on a secure basis.

Parties. The emperor, in league with the Pope, against the German Protestants under John Frederick, duke of Saxony, and Philip, landgrave of Hesse-Cassel.

Great battle. The emperor defeats the Protestants at Muhlberg, (1547,) where he captures the two Protestant leaders.

Maurice of Saxony. This victory he owed in part to the treachery of Maurice their kinsman, on whom, as a reward for his conduct, Charles conferred the electorate of Saxony. (His descendants still occupy the Saxon throne.) Ostensibly taking part with the emperor, Maurice still kept up a secret alliance with the Protestants, and so arranged matters that their cause did not become entirely desperate. At length, he threw off the mask, and placed himself at the head of the league. He conducted the war with such consummate skill that, after various reverses, Charles was obliged to submit.

Peace. At Passau, (see this.) This treaty, which placed the religious liberties of Germany on a secure basis, was confirmed by a solemn declaration made at Augsburg, in 1555, and entitled the Peace of Religion.

II. The Cleve Succession.

On the 25th of March, 1609, had died, without issue, John William, duke of Juliers, Cleve, and Berg, count of La Marck and Ravensberg, and lord of Ravenstein. Numerous claimants to this succession arose. The question of this succession derived its chief importance from the circumstance that though Protestantism had spread around them, the dukes of Cleve had always remained firmly attached to the orthodox Church, thus constituting one of the few large Catholic powers among the temporal princes of Germany.

The emperor Rudolf II., evoked the cause before the Aulic Council, as the proper tribunal in all feudal disputes. Before a definitive judgment was pronounced, two of the claimants, the elector of Brandenburg and the count palatine of Neuburg, jointly occupied the Cleve inheritance, and assumed the title of *princes in possession*. The elector of Brandenburg, on the death, in 1613, of his brother, the margrave Ernest of Brandenburg, who governed Juliers for both the *princes in possession*, placed the government of it in the hands of his own son, George William. This arrangement was by no means satisfactory to the count palatine of Neuburg, and his son Wolfgang; and the latter now took a step unexpected even by his father.

The count palatine had consented to the marriage of his son with Magdalen, sister of Maximilian of Bavaria, the head of the Catholic league. In the spring of 1614, Wolfgang occupied Düsseldorf, drove out the officers of the Brandenburg government, and seized as many other places as he could; then he publicly embraced the Roman Catholic faith.

In order to maintain himself in Düsseldorf, and to gain possession of the whole of the Cleve inheritance, he solicited the emperor to call the Spaniards into Germany. In answer to this request, Spinola marched into Germany and took possession of Juliers and Wesel. But as this was a regular attack on the allies of Holland, Prince Maurice, who was in the neighborhood with a small army, immediately occupied, in the name of the house of Brandenburg, Rees, Emmerich, Kranenburg, and Gennep. Thus a German territory, disputed by German princes, was occupied by the Spaniards for one party, and by the Dutch for the other. The two great parties, each assisted by foreigners, were in array against each other, ready to begin the strife, which was destined to last more than 30 years, and devastate the fairest parts of central Europe. The dispute about the Cleve inheritance was finally terminated, in 1627, by the convention of Düsseldorf, by which the territories of the late duke were equally divided between the two claimants — BRANDENBURG receiving for his share, *Cleves* and the counties of *Mark* and *Ravensberg*, and NEUBURG obtaining Juliers, Berg, and Ravenstein.

III. The Thirty Years War.

General cause. The division of the German Empire into three distinct parties, Catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists. These parties were mutually animated with religious hatred, and ready to take arms against each other on the most trifling pretext.

Particular causes. 1. The dissolution of the empire, the result of the spirit of religious faction, (no diet having been convened since 1613.) 2. The unceasing ground of quarrel furnished by the church lands, which Protestants had seized, and which were reclaimed by Catholic princes or prelates. 3. The corrupt and reckless policy of the ministers of Rudolf II. 4. The smouldering hate of half a century kindled by the troubles of Bohemia.

Immediate cause. The order issued by Emperor Ferdinand to shut up the new churches which the Protestants had erected at Braunau and Klostergrab, produces an outbreak at Prague; — the delegates, at the instigation of Count Thurn, the head of the Protestant party in Bohemia, throw Slawata, Martinitz, and Fabricius out of the window of the council chamber in the Hradschin at Prague, (May 23d, 1618.) Under the conduct of Thurn, a regular revolt was

now organized in Bohemia; a revolutionary government was appointed, and steps were taken to form a union with the Protestants of Austria and Hungary.

Duration. Thirty years, (1618–1648.)

Theatre of war. Central Europe. It was the first general European war.

Character of the war. The great German revolution.

Object of the war. The annihilation of the house of Habsburg.

Result of the war. The material and political annihilation of Germany.

Parties. A. *Catholics:* The emperor, the Liga, Spain, Belgium, Italy, and Poland. B. *Protestants:* The evangelical states of Germany, Holland, England, Denmark, and Sweden. In 1632, Catholic France joins the Protestants, and thus changes the character of the war, (from a religious to a political war.)

Division. 1. The Bohemian-Palatine period, (1618–1623.) 2. The Danish period, (1625–1629.) 3. The Swedish period, (1630–1635.) 4. The French period, (1634–1648.)

First Division. The Bohemian-Palatine Period.

Cause. The Bohemians renounced their allegiance to Ferdinand II., and conferred the crown of Bohemia on Frederick V., elector palatine, son-in-law of James I of England. Frederick V. was at that time the leading Protestant prince in Germany. He ruled one winter in Bohemia, 1619–20: hence his name, the Winterking. Frederick's army is utterly routed on the White mountain, near Prague, (Nov. 8th, 1620.) Frederick's flight to Holland. He is placed under the ban of the empire. All his states are confiscated.

Duration. Nearly six years, (1618–1623.)

Theatre of war. Western Germany.

Object of the war. The restoration of Frederick V. to his paternal inheritance, (the palatinate.)

Result of the war. Devastation of western Germany. Frederick a fugitive. The Catholics victorious. The vacant electorate was conferred on Maximilian of Bavaria, whose appointment gave the Catholics a majority in the electoral college.

Great commanders. *Catholic:* Maximilian of Bavaria, Tilly, Spinola. *Protestant:* Mansfeld, Baden-Durlach, Christian of Brunswick.

Decisive battles. Hochst, (1622;) Stadt Lohn, (1623;) both gained by the Catholics.

Second Division. The Danish Period.

Cause. The election of Christian IV., king of Denmark, as chief of the circle of Lower Saxony. He declares his determination to put an end to the quartering of troops and other burdens, with which some of the states belonging to that circle were oppressed, contrary to the peace of religion and the laws of the empire.

Duration. About five years, (1625–1629.)

Theatre of war. Northern Germany.

Object of the war. To restore the Winterking (Frederick V.) to his states.

Result of the war. Devastation of northern Germany. The Catholics victorious.

Great commanders. *Catholic:* Tilly and WALLENSTEIN. *Protestant:* Mansfeld, and Christian of Brunswick.

Decisive battles. Catholic victories at *the bridge of Dessau,* and near *Lutter on the Bärenberg.*

Peace. In order to prevent a junction of the Swedes and Danes, a peace was concluded at Lubeck, (1629,) between the emperor and the king of Denmark, on terms exceedingly favorable to the latter, who received back all the territories of which he had been deprived by Wallenstein and Tilly, on pledging himself never to become a party to any confederacy against the emperor.

Result of the Conquest of Northern Germany.

The emperor, elated with his victory, began a crusade against the Protestants of Germany, beginning with those of Bohemia. Many of the leading men of Bohemia were executed; hundreds of Bohemian families were exiled; and the Catholic worship was restored in the Bohemian territory. The emperor's designs, however, extended beyond Bohemia. He aimed at the reduction of all the German princes to the same position as the nobles of other countries; and, as a step to the accomplishment of this, he ordered the restoration of all the church lands that had been seized by laymen subsequently to the treaty of Passau. Even the Catholics, many of whom had shared in the distribution of the church lands, resisted this decree, and began to be alarmed at the immense power which the house of Austria was assuming in the empire, under the pretence of zeal for the restoration of the Catholic Church. It was, however, carried into effect with great severity by Wallenstein. But the discontent excited by his proceedings was expressed by the estates of the empire so loudly and unequivocally as to compel the emperor to dismiss Wallenstein from his service, (September, 1630.)

Third Divisiom. The Swedish Period.

Causes. *a.* The plan of Wallenstein to extend the domination of the empire to the Baltic. *b.* The exclusion of the Swedish ambassadors from the congress of Lubeck. *c.* The assistance given to the Poles (the bitter enemies of Gustavus Adolphus) by the imperialists.

Duration. Six years, (1630–1635.)

Theatre of war. The whole of Germany.

Object of the war. The humiliation of the imperial house of Habsburg. The erection of a Protestant empire.

Result of the war. Germany becomes the general battle-field of Europe. The thorough devastation of Germany.

Great commanders. *Imperialists: Tilly, Wallenstein,* Piccolomini, Gallas. *Anti-imperialists:* GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS, *Bernhard of Weimar,* Horn.

Decisive battles. *Gained by the Imperialists:* Nordlingen, (1634.) *Gained by the Anti-imperialists:* Breitenfeld, (1631;) Lützen, (1632.)

Peace. At Prague, (1635.) In order to oppose the Swedish and French troops, the emperor was obliged to make separate terms with the German Protestants. By the terms of this peace, the operation of the Restitution Edict was deferred for 40 years.

Fourth Division. The French Period.

Cause. Richelieu influences the Swedish government not to accede to the peace of Prague. The elector of Saxony had by an express article of this peace pledged himself to assist in driving the Swedes from Germany. Richelieu wishes to prevent their expulsion.
Duration. Nearly 14 years, (1635–1648.)
Theatre of war. Two different theatres of war in Germany. In the east, the Swedes; in the west, the French.
Character of the war. The war has lost its religious character. It is a purely political struggle.
Object of the war. The political annihilation of the German Empire.
Result of the war. The policy of France and Sweden is entirely successful.
Great commanders. *Imperialists:* Von Werth. *Anti-imperialists:* Bernard of Weimar, Baner, Wrangel, Torstenson, Condé, Turenne.
Decisive battles. Gained by the Imperialists: Duttlingen, (1643.) Gained by the Anti-imperialists: Wittstock, (1636;) Leipsic, (1643;) Jankau, (1645;) Allerheim, (1645.)
Peace. See PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.

IV. Civil Wars in England.

a. First Civil War.

Immediate causes. 1st. The religious fury excited by the encouragement which the king and queen gave to Catholicism. 2d. The discovery of the conspiracy of some of the leading persons in the king's party to march the army to London and subdue the parliament. 3d. The insane step of the king in entering the house, to claim the surrender of the five leaders of the party opposed to him. 4th. The refusal of King Charles I., to give the control of the militia to parliament.
Duration. Four years, (1642–1645.)
Theatre of war. England.
Character of the war. Partly religious, partly political.
Object of the war. To bring the government of England under the control of the house of commons.
Result of the war. The government under the control of the army.
Great commanders. *Royalists:* Prince Rupert, Newcastle, Falkland, Montrose. *Anti-royalists:* Fairfax and Cromwell.
Decisive battles. Marston Moor (1644) and Naseby, (1645,) both gained by Cromwell.

b. Second Civil War.

Cause. The refusal of the parliament to treat any longer with Charles.
Duration. Six months, (March–August, 1648.)
Theatre of war. The northwest of England.
Object of the war. An army of 14,000 Scotchmen crosses the border with the intention of reinstating Charles on his throne.
Result of the war. Trial and execution of the king, (1649.)
Decisive battle. The Scots defeated at Preston by Cromwell.
Remark. The first acts of the Commons, after the execution of the king, were the abolition of the office of royalty, and of the house of lords, the sale of the church and crown lands, and the punishment of some of the more distinguished royalists. A council of state was appointed, of which Bradshaw was the president, Milton the foreign secretary. Cromwell was made lieutenant-general.
England was declared a commonwealth. The house of commons, reduced to a small number of members, was nominally the supreme power of the state. In fact, the army and its great chief governed everything. Cromwell had made its choice. He had kept the hearts of his soldiers, and had broken with almost every other class of his fellow-citizens.

III. THE AGE OF LOUIS XIV.

A. DURING THE ADMINISTRATION OF MAZARIN.

I. The Franco-Spanish War.

Cause. The elector of Trèves had admitted French troops in his fortresses, and had named Richelieu his coadjutor, a step by which that cardinal might have eventually secured a vote as one of the electors of the empire. The elector had, on account of these proceedings of his, been put under the ban of the empire, and in March, 1635, a Spanish corps surprised Trèves, and carried off the elector a prisoner to Antwerp. Richelieu immediately demanded the elector's liberation from the governor of the Netherlands. On the refusal of this demand, war was openly declared by a French herald at Brussels, (May, 1635.)
Duration. Twenty-four years, (1635–1659.)
Theatre of war. The confines of the French and Spanish Empires, (Spain, Italy, Rhine countries, Belgium.)
Object of the war. The extension of the French boundaries; especially the acquisition of Belgium.
Result of the war. France gains Artois in the north, and Rousillon in the south.
Parties. France allied with the Swedes and the Dutch, against the Spanish and the Austrian Habsburgs.
Commanders. *Spanish:* Piccolomini, Gallas, von Werth, Mercy, CONDÉ, (after 1652.) *French:* Bernard of Weimar, La Force, TURENNE.
Decisive battles. Four victories of the *French* under CONDÉ: *Rocroy*, (1643;) *Freiburg*, (1644;) *Nordlingen*, (1645;) and Lens, (1648.) Defeat of the *Spanish* army under *Condé* by TURENNE, at Dunkirk, (1658.)
Peace. The peace of the Pyrenees, (November, 1659.) The conditions were

almost entirely in favor of France, which gained nearly the whole of Artois, and several towns on the Franco-Belgian frontier. In the south the French boundary was extended to the foot of the Pyrenees.

It was stipulated that Condé should submit to the king with the assurance of a pardon and the government of Burgundy, and that Louis XIV. should espouse Maria Theresia, eldest daughter of Philip IV., king of Spain. (See GENEALOGY, IX.)

II. Anglo-Dutch Wars.

a. First Anglo-Dutch War.

Cause. The passing of the Navigation Act, (October 9th, 1651,) intended to cripple the carrying trade of the Dutch.

Duration. Nearly two years, (May, 1652–April, 1654.)

Theatre of war. The narrow seas. (English channel, straits of Dover, southern part of the German ocean.)

Object of the war. To force England to take back the Navigation Act.

Result of the war. Holland impoverished. England master of the narrow seas.

Great commanders. *English:* Blake, Monk. *Dutch:* Tromp, De Ruyter.

Decisive battles. Twelve great battles, and many smaller encounters. *Off Portland, off the North Foreland, off the Texel,* (all English victories.)

Peace. At Westminster. The Navigation Act remains in force — Holland has to strike its flag to England. The Act of Seclusion.

Remark. The Navigation Act, which had caused this war, prohibited all nations from importing into England, in their bottoms, any commodity which was not the growth and manufacture of their own country. By this law the Dutch were the principal sufferers, because they subsisted chiefly by being the general carriers and factors of Europe.

The Act of Seclusion, which was the result of the English victories, excluded for ever the house of Orange from the chief magistracy, and from the command of the armies of the Dutch republic.

b. Second Anglo-Dutch War.

Cause. The war was entered into both by the English court and people from interested motives, though of a different kind. The king (Charles II.) encouraged it as a pretence to get subsidies from his parliament, and also as a means to place his nephew, the prince of Orange, at the head of the Dutch republic. The king's brother, the duke of York, was incited to encourage the war by the prospect of employment, and the hope of distinguishing himself as an admiral. Lastly, the English nation was envious of the commercial prosperity of the Dutch.

Duration. Nearly three years, (1665–1667.)

Theatre of war. The narrow seas, (that portion of the German ocean and English channel, which separates England from Holland.)

Object of the war. The annihilation of the Dutch commerce.

Result of the war. Mutual exhaustion.

Great commanders. *English:* The duke of York, and Monk. *Dutch:* De Ruyter, Tromp, Wassenaar.

Decisive battles. *English victories:* Off Lowestoff, on the Suffolk coast, (1665.) *Dutch victories:* Between Dunkirk and North Foreland, (1666,) Chatham, (1667.)

Peace. At Breda. The English retained New York and New Jersey, while Surinam and the isle of Polerone in the Moluccas remained to the Dutch. The Navigation Act was so far modified that all merchandise coming down the Rhine was allowed to be imported into England in Dutch vessels; a measure which rendered the Dutch masters of a great part of the commerce of Germany.

B. DURING THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.

I. Condition of France during the first part of the Reign of Louis XIV.

The territory of France was not quite so extensive as at present, but it was large, compact, fertile, well placed both for attack and for defence, situated in a happy climate, well inhabited by a brave, active, and ingenious people. The state implicitly obeyed the direction of a single mind. The great fiefs, which three hundred years before had been in all but name independent principalities, had been annexed to the crown. Only a few old men could remember the last meeting of the states-general. The resistance which the Huguenots, the nobles, and the parliament had offered to the kingly power had been put down by the two great cardinals (Richelieu and Mazarin) who had ruled the nation during 40 years. The government was now a despotism, but, at least in its dealings with the upper classes, a mild and generous despotism, tempered by courteous manners and chivalric sentiments. The means at the disposal of the sovereign were, for that age, truly formidable. His revenue — raised, it is true, by a severe and unequal taxation, which pressed heavily on the cultivators of the soil — far exceeded that of any other potentate. His army, excellently disciplined, and commanded by the greatest generals then living, already consisted of more than 120,000 men. Such an array of regular troops had not been seen in Europe since the downfall of the Roman Empire. Of maritime powers, France was not the first. But though she had rivals on the sea, she had not yet a superior. Such was her strength during the last forty years of the 17th century, that no enemy could singly withstand her; and two great coalitions, in which half Christendom was united against her, failed of success.

II. The Wars of Louis XIV.

a. General Summary.

Cause. The marriage of Louis XV. with Maria Theresia, eldest daughter of Philip IV. of Spain, which gave him a claim to the Spanish monarchy. (See GENEALOGY, IX.)

Duration. Nearly a half century, (1667–1715.)

Theatre of war. The whole of south-western Europe.

Object of the wars. To make France the ruling power in Europe, and to extend its boundaries as far as possible.

Result of the wars. The utter exhaustion of France.

Number of wars. Four. I. The war of devolution, (1667–1668.) II. The

war with Holland, (1672–1678.) III. The war of the league of Augsburg, (1678–1697.) IV. The Spanish Succession War, (1702–1715.)

b. The War of Devolution.

Cause. Louis XIV. had married, in 1660, Maria Theresia, daughter of Philip IV. of Spain. The dowry was fixed at 500,000 crowns, and Philip made it a condition that his daughter should renounce for herself and her descendants every right she might have to the succession. On the death of Philip IV., (1665,) Louis, without paying attention to the renunciation made by Maria Theresia, immediately set up claims in her name to Flanders, to the exclusion of the rights of Charles II., the younger child of Philip IV. His pretext was that the dowry of the queen not having been paid, her renunciation was null and void, and he set up with respect to Flanders a right of *devolution*, which resulted from a custom in force in parts of the Low Countries, which gave the paternal heritage to children of the first marriage, in preference to those of the second. Maria Theresia, his wife, was a child of her father's first marriage, while Charles II. was a child of the second.

Duration. One year, (May, 1667–May, 1668.)

Theatre of war. Belgium and Franche-Comté.

Object of the war. The incorporation of Belgium and Franche-Comté with the French monarchy.

Result of the war. French Flanders united with the French monarchy. France was thus established in the heart of Belgium, and able to push forward in a moment to the gates of Bruges, Ghent, and Antwerp.

Parties. Louis XIV., against the government of his brother-in-law, Charles II.

Great commanders. *French:* Turenne, Vauban, Louvois, Condé.

Campaigns. 1st. Louis enters Flanders, (May 18th, 1667,) which he conquers within three weeks. 2d. Louis enters Franche-Comté, (February, 1668,) which he conquers within two weeks.

Cause of peace. Europe became alarmed at these rapid successes, and a *triple alliance* was formed against Louis between *Holland*, *England*, and *Sweden.* John de Witt became the soul of this league, and it forced the king to sign the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

Peace. May 1st, 1668, at Aix-la-Chapelle. Spain cedes to France the places captured in Belgium, and Louis XIV. restores Franche-Comté.

c. The War with Holland.

Cause. The desire to punish Holland for the part it had taken in the *triple alliance*, which had robbed Louis of the fruits of his campaign of 1668. Offended by some medals which represented the United Provinces as the arbiters of Europe, and irritated at the impertinence of certain gazetteers, the king seized upon these frivolous pretexts and declared war upon the Dutch.

Duration. Nearly seven years, (1672– ——, 1678.)

Theatre of war. The middle and lower part of the Rhine valley, Belgium, and Franche-Comté.

Object of the war. The annihilation of Holland.

Result of the war. Holland did not lose a foot of ground in Europe. France reached its natural frontier on the east, the Jura.

Parties. France, England, Cologne, and Münster, against Holland—after 1674. France, with Sweden, opposed to the greater part of Europe.

Great commanders. *French:* Condé, Turenne, Vauban, Luxembourg, Duquesne. *Dutch:* William of Orange, De Ruyter. *German:* Montecuculi.

Campaigns. Early in May, 1672, the French marched against Holland. With the assistance of their allies from Cologne and Münster, they occupied in a few weeks the provinces of Gelderland, Utrecht, Over-Yssel, and part of Holland.

Despair lent strength to the vanquished. They opened their dikes and laid the country under water, for the purpose of compelling the French to evacuate it. Europe also rose in favor of Holland. The emperor Leopold, the kings of Spain and Denmark, the elector of Brandenburg, etc., leagued themselves against Louis XIV., who was not only compelled to abandon his conquests, (in the winter and spring, 1673–74,) but had to defend himself against the greater part of Europe.

Louis in person entered Franche-Comté, which was conquered within two months, (May and June, 1674.) Condé opposed the prince of Orange in Belgium. Indecisive battle of Senef, (August, 1674.)

Turenne held the imperialists in check by a series of brilliant manœuvres on the Rhine. He burned 27 towns and villages in the palatinate, and conquered Elsass. (See TURENNE.)

Decisive battles. On land, gained by Turenne: *Entsheim*, (1674;) *Türckheim*, (1675.) On sea, gained by Duquesne: *Off Palermo*, (1676.)

Peace. At Nimwegen. (See this.) The Peace of Nimwegen is the culminating point of Louis XIV.'s glory. But France now became the object of a jealousy excited by the pride of Louis, the pernicious counsels of Louvois, and the natural restlessness of the French people; which, after some time, produced misfortunes that embittered the last days of the French monarch with repentance and regret.

d. Position of Louis XIV. after the Peace of Nimwegen.

The works executed by Colbert, Louvois, and Vauban; the conquests of Turenne and Condé; the halo of a brilliant literature; the eloquence of Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Fléchier, and Fénélon; the writings of Corneille, Molière, Racine, Boileau, La Fontaine, and so many other celebrated men; the profound works of the great thinkers and moralists, such as Pascal, Descartes, Malebranche, La Bruyère, and La Rochefoucauld; the marvellous artistic productions of the sculptors Girardon, Puget, Coysevox, and Couston; the artists Lesueur, Nicholas Poussin, Claude Lorraine, and Le Brun, and the architects Perrault, the two Mansards, and Le Notre; the scientific discoveries of the great mathematicians of this period, in the first rank of whom may be placed Pierre Fermat; and finally, the labors undertaken by the astronomers Picard and Cassini, for the purpose of measuring the globe—throw an incomparable lustre upon the first portion of the reign of Louis XIV., and contributed to lead posterity to apply to the monarch the epithet of *Great*, and to speak of the age in which he reigned as *the age of Louis XIV.*

e. The War of the League of Augsburg.

Causes. The main grounds assigned for declaring war were: 1st. That the emperor intended to conclude a peace with the Turks, in order that he might turn his arms against France. 2d. That he had supported the elector pala-

tine in his unjust hesitation to do justice to the claims of the duchess of Orleans. 3d. That he had deprived Cardinal Furstenberg, an ally of France, of the archbishopric of Cologne.

Duration. Ten years, (1688–1697.)

Theatre of war. Belgium, Piemont, Rhine countries, and north-eastern Spain.

Object of the war. Louis XIV. wanted to extend his boundaries, and replace James II. on the English throne. The allies intended to break down the power of France, and reconquer the countries lost in the preceding war.

Result of the war. The prince of Orange is acknowledged as king of England. The power of Louis XIV. is shaken to its foundations by this long and bloody war.

Parties. The emperor, the princes of the empire, Spain, Holland, and Savoy, *against* France.

Great commanders. *French:* Luxembourg, Catinat, Vendome, Boufflers, Tourville. *The Allies:* William of Orange, Waldeck, Evertsen.

Decisive battles. *Gained by the French:* Fleurus, (1690;) Steenkerk, (1692;) Neerwinden, (1693;) Marsaglia, (1693.) *Gained by the Allies:* La Hogue, where the French navy was destroyed. In 1689 took place the second burning of the palatinate.

Cause of peace. The utter exhaustion of France forced Louis to enter into negotiations for peace. He first of all succeeded, in 1696, in detaching from the league the duke of Savoy, who gave his daughter in marriage to the duke of Burgundy, grandson of Louis XIV. Secure on the side of Italy, the king marched considerable bodies of troops into Flanders, and carried on the war actively in Catalonia, where Vendome achieved the important conquest of Barcelona. These events hastened the progress of the negotiations for peace.

Peace. It was signed at length at Ryswyk, (September 20th, 1697,) the principal conditions of this treaty were: 1st. The king of Spain regains many places in Belgium. 2d. The prince of Orange is acknowledged as king of England. 3d. France restores all her recent conquests and all the additions to her territory subsequent to the peace of Nimwegen, save Strasburg and the domains of the Elsass.

Remark. Thus terminated this vast war, in which the two parties had displayed, on land and sea, forces incomparably greater than modern Europe had ever seen before in motion. The armies acquired frightful proportions: France, in order to maintain herself against the coalition, had nearly doubled her military status since the war with Holland. The result of these gigantic efforts had been to her a barren honor: alone against almost all Europe, she had continued to conquer; but she had conquered without increasing her power. For the first time, on the contrary, since the accession of Richelieu, she had lost ground and receded in the work of her territorial completion. She found herself, in 1697, much within the limits of 1684, and returned to the limits of 1678, except that she had acquired a great defensive position, Strasburg, in exchange for offensive positions, which was advantageous to a true policy.

f. The Spanish Succession War.

Cause. Charles II., king of Spain, had nominated as his successor, Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of his eldest sister, Maria Theresia, and second son of the dauphin of France. (See GENEALOGY, IX.) Louis XIV. knew that to accept this testament was to expose France to a new war with Europe. He could not resist, however, his desire to place so brilliant a crown on the head of his grandson; and therefore, after some hesitation, he accepted the will, recognized the duke of Anjou as a king, under the title of Philip V., and sent him to Spain with the memorable words: "*There are no longer any Pyrenees.*"

Duration. Fourteen years, (1702–1715.)

Theatre of war. Italy, Belgium, Rhine countries, Spain.

Object of the war. To prevent the house of Bourbon from ascending the Spanish throne.

Result of the war. The house of Bourbon ascend the Spanish throne.

Parties. Louis XIV. against the emperor, the empire, Holland, and England.

Great commanders. *French:* Catinat, Vendome, Berwick, Villars. *The Allies:* Prince Eugene and Marlborough.

Decisive battles. *Gained by the French:* Almanza, (1707;) Villa Viciosa, (1710;) Denain, (1712.) *Gained by the Allies:* Blenheim, (1704;) Ramillies, (1706;) Oudenaarde, (1708;) Malplaquet, (1709.)

Causes of peace. A revolution which took place in the English court. The duchess of Marlborough offended Queen Anne, and her disgrace led to that of her husband. The opposite party (the Tories) came into power, and, for the purpose of completing the ruin of Marlborough, they inclined the queen toward peace. The death of the emperor Joseph assisted them in their designs. The archduke Charles, his brother, (see GENEALOGY, IX.,) the competitor of Philip V., obtained the imperial crown, and incurred, in his turn, the reproach of aspiring to universal monarchy. From this time England was no longer interested in supporting his claims to the throne of Spain, and agreed to a truce with France.

Peace. At Utrecht, (1713.) Its principal provisions were, that Philip V. should be acknowledged as king of Spain, but that his monarchy should be dismembered. Sicily was given to the duke of Savoy, with the title of king.

The English obtained Minorca and Gibraltar; France also ceding to them Hudson's bay, Newfoundland, and St. Christopher.

Louis XIV. guaranteed the succession to the English throne to the Protestant line, and promised to demolish the port of Dunkirk. The elector of Brandenburg was recognized as king of Prussia.

The emperor made peace at Baden, (1714,) by which he obtained Belgium, the Milanese, and the kingdom of Naples, dismembered from the monarchy of Spain.

Remark. France preserved its frontiers by the Peace of Utrecht; but its immense sacrifices had opened an abyss, in which the monarchy was finally engulphed.

Louis did not long survive the peace of Utrecht. He died at Versailles, on the first of September, 1715. He had lived 77 years, reigned 72, governed 54. It was the longest as the greatest reign of French history.

France prospered under Louis XIV., as long as he continued the idea of Richelieu; it suffered, then declined, when he became unfaithful to it.

IV. EASTERN EUROPE, DURING THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV.

THE SCANDINAVO-SLAVONIAN WARS.

I. Position of Sweden.

During the wars of Louis XIV. in western Europe, a series of wars scarcely less important in their effects, and even more extraordinary in their circumstances, had been going on in the north and east, involving Sweden, Denmark, Poland, and Russia. At the beginning of this period, Sweden was the great power in the north. The peace of Westphalia had rewarded Sweden for the exertions of Gustavus Adolphus, by ceding to her Pomerania, and other districts on the Baltic, and giving her three votes in the German diet. The ambition of Sweden, being once aroused, now appeared, under the first three kings of the Bipontine house, to menace all neighboring states more than under Gustavus Adolphus himself.

II. The Wars of Charles X.

Charles X., (1654–1660,) king of Sweden, was the cousin and successor of Christina, only daughter and heir of Gustavus Adolphus. (See GENEALOGY, XIV.)

a. The Swedish Succession War.

Cause. John Casimir II., king of Poland and son of Sigismund, (who had been dethroned, in Sweden, in 1604,) annoyed at seeing the Swedish crown pass into a foreign house, protested against the accession of Charles X.

Duration. Six years, (1654–1660.)

Theatre of war. Poland.

Object of the war. To prevent the crown of Sweden from passing from the house of Vasa.

Result of the war. The crown of Sweden is confirmed to the heirs of Charles X., and an end is put to the pretensions of the Polish Vasas.

Parties. John Casimir II., of Poland, against Charles X., of Sweden. Frederick William, the great elector, and Alexis, czar of Russia, are sometimes on the side of the one, sometimes on the side of the other of the contending parties.

Great commanders. Charles X., the Pyrrhus of the north. Frederick William, the great elector.

Decisive battles. Sobota, utter defeat of John Casimir, (1655;) Warsaw, Poles again defeated, (1656.)

Cause of peace. The death of Charles X.

Peace. At Oliva, (1660.) John Casimir renounced his claim to the Swedish crown, but was allowed to retain the title of king of Sweden, which, however, was not to be borne by his successors. All Livonia beyond the Dwina was ceded to Sweden.

Remark. The treaty of Oliva is as celebrated in the northeast of Europe as the peace of Westphalia in the southwest.

b. The First War between Sweden and Denmark.

Cause. Frederick III., of Denmark, had concluded a treaty with the Dutch republic, for the defence of the Baltic navigation.

Duration. Two years, (1656–1658.)

Theatre of war. Denmark.

Object of the war. The establishment of a Scandinavian empire that should command the Baltic.

Result of the war. The conviction that Denmark without allies cannot withstand Charles X.

Parties. Denmark in alliance with John Casimir of Poland, the emperor, and the czar. Sweden without allies, and with Holland and Brandenburg as covert enemies.

Great commanders. Charles X., Wrangel.

Campaign. The Swedes cross the ice, (beginning of 1658,) and march toward Copenhagen; before they reached the capital, however, the Danes asked for peace.

Cause of peace. The elector of Brandenburg and the Dutch were both preparing to come to the relief of Denmark.

Peace. At Roskild, (March, 1658.) By this treaty Denmark was isolated from her allies, as each party agreed to renounce all alliances contracted to the prejudice of the other, and the Baltic was to be closed to the fleets of the enemies of either power.

c. The Second War between Sweden and Denmark.

Cause. The king of Denmark was charged with not having fulfilled all the conditions of the treaty of Roskild; with being the cause of the oppression of the Protestants in Livonia by the Russians; with being the cause of the taking of Thorn by the Poles; and with having promoted the election of Leopold, the enemy of Sweden, as emperor of Germany.

Duration. Two years, (August, 1658–June, 1660.)

Theatre of war. Denmark, especially the island of Zealand.

Object of the war. Denmark was to be annihilated as an independent kingdom, and to be reduced to the condition of a Swedish province.

Result of the war. Sweden had to restore all her Danish conquests.

Parties. Denmark, assisted by the Dutch, Brandenburg, and Poland, against Sweden.

Campaign. Charles X. blockaded Copenhagen; but he was blockaded at the same time, at sea, by the Dutch and Danish fleet, and on land, by the army of the allies.

Causes of peace. 1st. England, France, and the Dutch republic entered into an agreement to enforce the peace of Roskild. If the belligerent monarchs did not agree to a peace within a fortnight after the receipt of the demands of this new convention, the fleets were to be employed against the party or parties refusing. 2d. The death of Charles X.

Peace. The treaty of Copenhagen. It was essentially a confirmation of the treaty of Roskild.

Remark. This was the first attempt in European policy to coerce a conquering nation by forcing upon it a treaty.

III. The Wars of Charles XI.

The participation of the Swedes in the war of Louis XIV. against Holland and Brandenburg occasioned the loss of their German possessions, (after the battle of Fehrbellin, in 1675,) but most of these were afterward restored, (in 1679,) by the peace of St. Germain-en-Laye. This was soon followed by the peace of Lund, between Denmark and Sweden, by which Sweden also recovered all that she had lost. Thus Sweden, through the aid of France, concluded, without any loss of territory, a war which had threatened her with dismemberment.

IV. The Wars of Charles XII.

a. The Attack.

Cause. Livonia — a province the possession of which had been a subject of contest for ages between Poland, Russia, and Sweden — was seized by Augustus II. of Poland.

Duration. Nineteen years, (1700–1718.)

Theatre of war. The eastern part of Europe, from the shores of the Baltic to the shores of the Black sea.

Object of the war. The dismemberment of Sweden and the division of its territories.

Result of the war. Sweden loses the greater part of her German possessions. Russia becomes the predominant power in the northeast.

Parties. Augustus II., elector of Saxony and king of Poland, Peter the Great, czar of Russia, and Frederick IV., king of Denmark, against Charles XII. of Sweden.

Campaigns. The Swedish king and his brother-in-law, the duke of Holstein, were simultaneously attacked by three armies. 1. A Danish army entered Schleswig. 2. A Russian army marched toward Narva. 3. An army of Saxons and Poles entered Livonia.

b. The Repulse of the Invaders.

1. Charles XII. turned first against Denmark. He landed on Zealand, and forced the Danes to respect the rights of the duke of Holstein in Schleswig. (Peace of Travendahl, 1700.) Thus did Charles finish his first war in the course of a few weeks, without fighting a single battle.

2. Three weeks after the peace of Travendahl, Charles XII. was marching toward Narva, near which town he defeated the Russian army with a small force, and made its chief officers prisoners. (November, 1700.)

3. Finally, (July, 1701,) he compelled the Poles to raise the siege of Riga, and drove them out of Livonia.

c. The Retaliation of Charles XII.

A. AGAINST AUGUSTUS II. He directed his vengeance chiefly against Augustus II., whom he followed into his own dominions, beating him again and again, at Warsaw and Klissow, (1702,) Pultusk, (1703,) and Fraustadt, (1706.) He openly announced his resolution not to desist from the war until he had deposed Augustus from the throne of Poland. He was deposed, in 1704, and a Polish nobleman, Stanislaus Leczinski, elected in his stead. Finally he compelled Augustus to sign an ignominious peace, in which he abjured his alliance with the czar and resigned his claims to the Polish crown. (Peace of Altranstadt, 1706.)

B. AGAINST PETER THE GREAT. Charles XII. turned now his attention toward the only remaining member of the hostile league, Peter the Great, czar of Russia. Here, however, he met his match. When he led his veterans into the interior of Russia, the Russians retreated before him as far as Smolensk, where winter and want of provisions compelled Charles to arrest his march. In the following spring, he struck off toward the Ukraine, where Mazeppa, hetman of the Cossacks, had promised to join him. This step ruined him. In the Ukraine, he found the Russians masters, and was joined but by the wrecks of the Cossack army. Here he was attacked and defeated by the Russians under Czar Peter, at Pultowa, (July 8th, 1709,) the first battle ever gained by the Russians over regular troops.

d. The Misfortunes of Charles XII.

Charles XII. seeing his fortunes annihilated, fled to the Turkish frontier. He reached it with great difficulty, and threw himself upon the hospitality of the sultan Ahmed III., who assigned him Bender (on the Dniester) as a place of residence. All Charles's arrangements were now reversed, and Augustus II. replaced on the Polish throne. A new alliance was formed between Peter the Great, Augustus II., and Frederick of Denmark, and each carved out for himself that part of the Swedish dominions which he liked best.

Russia took Ingria, Livonia, and Carelia, and other districts on the Baltic.

Denmark took Holstein-Gottorp and Schonen.

Poland took some districts contiguous with it.

The allies were prevented from dismembering Sweden altogether, only by the bravery of the Swedes in defending their territories, and by the unwillingness of the European diplomatists to permit an act so injurious to the balance of power.

In 1714, Charles XII. returned from Turkey, and immediately began the war. The three allies again took the field to oppose him; and were joined by Prussia and England, both of which powers were resolved that the insane ambition of the young Swede should not again have scope. The allies were successful.

Charles finally invaded Norway, which he wished to wrest from Denmark. But he was killed by a ball at the siege of Frederickshall, (December 11th, 1718.)

e. Final Settlement of the North.

Two treaties definitely settled the long contest of the north: 1. The treaty of Stockholm was concluded, in 1720, between Sweden, Great Britain, Prussia, and Denmark. By it, Sweden ceded part of Pomerania to Prussia, and recovered in return some of her other continental territories.

2. The treaty of Nystadt was concluded, in 1721, between Sweden and Russia. By it, Sweden renounced all claim to the Baltic provinces conquered by Russia, with the exception of Finland, which the czar restored.

V. EASTERN EUROPE DURING THE REIGN OF EMPEROR CHARLES VI.

I. The Austro-Turkish War.

Cause. The Morea (the southern peninsula of Greece) wrested from the Venetians by the Turks, (1715.) The Venetians implore and receive the assistance of the emperor.

Duration. About three years, (1716–1718.)

Theatre of war. The valley of the Lower Danube.

Object of the war. To drive the Turks out of the Morea, and to restore it to the Venetians.

Result of the war. This war gave a mortal blow to the power of Venice in the East.

Parties. The emperor, with the Venetians, against the Turks, with the Hungarian malcontents under Ragoczy.

Great commander. PRINCE EUGÈNE, commander of the imperial forces.

Battles. Peterwardein, (1716;) Belgrade, (1717;) both gained by Prince Eugène.

Peace. At Passarowitz, (1718,) the conditions of which were as follows: That the emperor should retain all the territories wrested from the Turks during the war, (the Banate, Servia, and a portion of Wallachia, Bosnia, and Croatia;) the Turks, on their part, retaining the Morea, which Charles had fruitlessly endeavored to recover for Venice.

Remark. This is the period of the celebrated "*Letters*" of Lady Montague, the wife of Sir Wortley Montague, the English ambassador at Constantinople.

II. The War of the Polish Succession.

Cause. The double election of Stanislaus and Frederick Augustus as king of Poland. (See POLISH ELECTION.) Stanislaus had been elected by a majority of the Polish nobles, but was driven from his kingdom by the Russians.

Duration. Nearly five years, (1734–1738.)

Theatre of war. Although Poland was the subject of the quarrel, Germany and Italy were the chief scenes of the campaigns; for as Russia was too distant to be attacked, the western allies turned the brunt of the war against the German emperor.

Object of the war. The restoration of Stanislaus Leczinsky to the Polish throne.

Result of the war. Stanislaus renounces his claim to the crown of Poland, receiving as an indemnification the duchy of Lorraine, with an understanding, that after his death it should revert to France.

Parties. France took up the cause of Stanislaus; Spain and Sardinia leagued with France. Russia took up the cause of Frederick Augustus; the German emperor leagued with Russia.

Great commanders. Prince Eugène, against the French marshals Villars and Berwick, the last of those great commanders who had adorned the reign of Louis XIV.

Cause of peace. The reverses experienced by the emperor had led him to desire peace, which England and Holland offered to mediate.

Peace. At Vienna, (1738.) The arrangements of the peace of Utrecht (1713) were greatly modified: 1. Don Carlos (see GENEALOGY, VI.), was acknowledged king of the Two Sicilies, (Charles III.) and became thus the founder of the Bourbon dynasty at Naples. 2. Augustus III., elector of Saxony, was acknowledged king of Poland. 3. Stanislaus received the duchy of Lorraine, with the proviso that after his decease it should be attached to France. 4. Francis of Lorraine received the grand-duchy of Tuscany. 5. Charles Emanuel III., king of Sardinia, received certain portions of Lombardy. 6. France guaranteed the pragmatic sanction, (the succession of the emperor's only child, Maria Theresia, to the hereditary dominions of the house of Habsburg.)

Thus terminated a war for which the question of the Polish succession afforded only a pretence.

VI. THE AGE OF FREDERICK THE GREAT.

I. Condition of the Prussian Army at the Accession of Frederick the Great.

The care which Frederick William had bestowed on the army proved of the greatest benefit to his successor and to the Prussian nation. Two causes had compelled him to keep up a considerable army:

First. The great Northern War, which had threatened to sweep Frederick William into its vortex at the commencement of his reign.

Second. The independence of his dominions was threatened by the augmentation of the power of his neighbors.

I. By the accession of the elector of Hanover to the throne of Great Britain.
II. By the accession of the elector of Saxony to the throne of Poland.
III. By the growth of Russia into a large military power.

Under the care of Prince Leopold of Dessau, the Prussian infantry were trained to the height of discipline, the result of which was to make the Prussian army act with the precision of a machine. The infantry tactics were especially improved by introducing the cadenced step, the secret of the firmness and swiftness of the Roman legions. From morning to night the Prussian soldiers were engaged in this exercise, and in the uniform and simultaneous use of their weapons.

II. The Wars of Frederick the Great.

a. General Summary.

Cause. Frederick II. ascended the throne, determined to raise Prussia to the rank of one of the great powers of Europe; and he regarded aggrandizement

as the means by which he must effect it. He gave himself but little trouble respecting the justice of his undertakings; but he was distinguished from the common herd of conquerors by having one fixed object.

Duration. Nearly a quarter of a century, (1740–1763.)

Theatre of war. Central Europe.

Object of the wars. The possession of Silesia by Prussia.

Result of the wars. Prussia one of the great powers of Europe. Silesia a Prussian province.

Number of wars. 1. The first Silesian war, (1740–1742.) 2. The Austrian succession war, (1741–1748.) 3. The second Silesian war, (1744–1745.) 4. The seven years war, or third Silesian war, (1756–1763.)

b. The First Silesian War.

Cause. The refusal of Maria Theresia to recognize Frederick's claim to some portions of Silesia.

Duration. About two years, (1740–1742.)

Theatre of war. Silesia and Bohemia.

Object of the war. The possession of some principalities in Silesia.

Result of the war. Frederick gets Silesia.

Parties. Frederick II. (allied with Bavaria and France) against Maria Theresia.

Commanders. Schwerin and Frederick II.

Decisive battles. Mollwitz, (1741;) Chotusitz, (1741;) both Prussian victories.

Peace. At Breslau, (1742.) Upper Silesia, Lower Silesia, and Glatz are ceded by Maria Theresia to Frederick, on condition of his withdrawing from the alliance against her.

c. The Austrian Succession War.

Cause. The emperor Charles VI. had left no son to succeed him. As early as 1713, he had published an arrangement known as the Pragmatic Sanction, securing the Austrian states, in default of male heirs, to his eldest daughter, Maria Theresia, and her descendants. He had secured the adherence of all the leading powers to this arrangement. Nevertheless, on his death, (October, 1740,) her right to the inheritance was contested by Bavaria, Spain, and Saxony, who claimed to have greater right than Maria Theresia. (See GENEALOGY, IX.)

Duration. Eight years, (1741–1748.)

Theatre of war. The whole of Germany.

Object of the war. To deprive Maria Theresia of her inheritance.

Result of the war. Maria Theresia retains nearly the whole of her inheritance.

Parties. France, Spain, Bavaria, and Saxony, against Maria Theresia, assisted by England and Holland, (after 1743.) Frederick II., of Prussia, joins the enemies of Maria Theresia, in 1744.

Commanders. *Austrian:* Khevenhüller and Prince Charles of Lorraine. *French:* Saxe, (see this,) Belleisle, Noailles.

Decisive battles. *Gained by the allies of Maria Theresia:* Simpach, (1743;) Dettingen, (1743.) *Gained by the enemies of Maria Theresia:* Fontenoy, (1745.)

Cause of peace. General exhaustion.

Peace. In 1748, at Aix-la-Chapelle. (See this.)

d. Wars contemporary with, and forming part of the Austrian Succession War.

A. SECOND SILESIAN WAR. Cause. Maria Theresia had succeeded in making a league with Great Britain, Russia, Saxony, Sardinia, and the states-general. Frederick II., afraid that this league might be turned against him, resolved to oppose to it a double league, one with France, and one with the states of the empire.

Duration. Two years, (1744–1745.)

Theatre of war. Bohemia, Silesia, Saxony.

Object of the war. To prevent the recovery of Silesia by Maria Theresia.

Result of the war. Prussia retains Silesia.

Commanders. Frederick II. and Schwerin.

Decisive battles. *Gained by Frederick II.:* Hohenfriedberg, (1745;) Kesselsdorf, (1745.)

Cause of peace. The British cabinet threatened to withdraw its subsidies to Maria Theresia, unless she made peace with Prussia.

Peace. At Dresden, (1745.) It confirmed Frederick in the possession of Silesia and Glatz.

B. ANGLO-FRENCH WAR. Cause. During six years Great Britain contributed her share to the Austrian succession war, largely subsidizing Maria Theresia, and also taking a direct part. This led to a declaration of war between Great Britain and France, and to a series of land and sea battles between the forces of the two nations.

Duration. Nearly five years, (1744–1748.)

Theatre of war. Germany, Belgium, Scotland, and England. The war extended also to the Indian and American colonies of the two countries; and in these distant parts the naval superiority of Britain gave her the advantage.

Object of the war. To re-establish the Stuarts on the English throne.

Result of the war. France agrees to abandon the cause of the Stuarts forever.

The landing of the young Pretender. France, resorting to the most direct mode of attack on her adversary, prompted and assisted the famous rebellion under Charles Edward. (See CULLODEN.)

Peace. At Aix-la-Chapelle. (See this.)

e. The Seven Years War, or the Third Silesian War.

Causes. The desire of Maria Theresia to reconquer Silesia, and the general dislike of the European rulers to Frederick the Great.

Duration. Seven years, (1756–1763.)

Theatre of war. Not only the whole of central Europe, but also India and North America.

Object of the war. The partition of the Prussian monarchy.

Result of the war. Prussia takes rank as one of the five great European powers. (The other four are: Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and France.)

Parties. Austria allied with France, and also with Russia, Saxony, Bavaria, and the rest of the empire. Prussia allied with England, and four of the smaller German states, (Hesse-Cassel, Brunswick, Gotha, and Lippe.)

Commanders. *On the Austrian side:* Charles of Lorraine, Daun. *On the Prussian side:* Frederick II., Ferdinand of Brunswick, Seidlitz-Schwerin.

Decisive battles. *Gained by Austria or her allies:* Kollin, (1757;) Hochkirch, (1758;) Kunersdorf, (1759.) *Gained by Prussia or her allies:* Lowositz, (1756;) Prague, (1757;) Rossbach, (1757;) Leuthen, (1757;) Zorndorf, (1758;) Minden, (1759;) Pfaffendorf, (1760;) Torgau, (1760.)

Peace. At Hubertsburg, (1763.) Maria Theresia renounced all pretensions she might have to any of the dominions of the king of Prussia, and especially to those which had been ceded to him by the treaties of Breslau and Berlin.

f. French-Indian War, (Old French War.)

Cause. The Great West was claimed both by France and England. France had, since 1750, erected a chain of forts from Lake Erie to the mouth of the Mississippi, and had forbidden Englishmen to trade with the Indians. In 1753, all English traders found in the disputed territory were imprisoned by the French in their fort on Presque Isle, (now Erie, Penna.) The remonstrances of the English government not being heeded, George Washington (then in his 22d year) was sent with 400 men against the French, (at Fort Duquesne, near Pittsburg.) He surprised and captured a body of the enemy, but was soon in his turn attacked and obliged to surrender, (July, 1754.) He was, however, allowed to return with his men to Virginia. After his return no English flag was seen west of the Alleghanies.

Duration. Nearly ten years, (1754–1763.) The formal declaration of war against France was not made before May, 1756.

Theatre of war. The valley of the St. Lawrence, Nova Scotia, western Pennsylvania.

Object of the war. To make France the ruling power in North America.

Result of the war. England the ruling power in North America.

Parties. The French, assisted by the Indians, against the English.

Commanders. *French:* Montcalm, Dieskau, Villiers, Jumonville, etc. *English:* Wolfe, Washington, Braddock, Williams, Johnson, Amherst, Abercrombie, Bradstreet, Prideaux, etc.

Battles. Thirteen battles were fought — seven of which were gained by the English. *English victories:* Great Meadows, (1754;) in Nova Scotia, (1755;) Fort Edward, (1755;) Louisburg, (1758;) Frontenac, (1758;) Niagara, (1759;) Quebec, (1759.) *French victories:* Fort Necessity, (1754;) Fort Duquesne, (1755;) Lake George, (1755;) Oswego, (1756;) Fort William Henry, (1757;) Ticonderoga, (1758.)

Peace. At Paris, (February, 1763.) France ceded to England Canada and its dependencies, including the Great West, the island of Cape Breton, and all the other islands in the gulf, and the river St. Lawrence. France ceded also to England a portion of Louisiana, the remainder of which was ceded by France to Spain, to recompense her for the cession of Florida to England.

Remark. Louisiana was retroceded by Spain to France by the treaty of Madrid, (March, 1801). Napoleon, judging with good reason that its possession was too burdensome to France, and fearing that it might soon fall into the hands of the English, sold it to the United States, (during Jefferson's administration,) in 1803, for the sum of $11,250,000, besides the assumption on the part of the United States of some claims of our citizens against the Government of France.

g. Development of the British Power.

During the greater part of this struggle, the chief conduct of the war depended on the energetic activity of two kindred souls — Frederick the Great and William Pitt. The brief ministry of Pitt (1757–1761) was a glorious one in the annals of Britain. His spirit seemed to be breathed into the British navies in all seas, and the British armies in all parts of the world. The French were driven back across the Rhine. The settlements of the French in Africa were seized; in America, the whole of Canada and other possessions were wrested from the French by a series of victories, in one of which the brave Wolfe lost his life; and in India, the astonishing exploits of Clive shattered the French power, and transferred the empire of the East to Great Britain.

VII. THE WARS OF THE REVOLUTIONARY PERIOD.

I. The American War for Independence.

Cause. The attempt of England to tax the colonies without their being represented in parliament.

Duration. Eight years, (1775–1783.)

Theatre of war. The Atlantic coast of North America.

Object of the war. To force the colonies to submit to taxation without representation.

Result of the war. The independence of America.

Commanders. *American:* Washington, Parker, Allen, Montgomery, Moultrie, Stark, Warren, Gates, Greene, Sullivan, Pickens, Wayne, Lee, Campbell, Morgan, Arnold, (the traitor,) Lafayette, Steuben, De Kalb, Kosciusko. *English:* Gage, Howe, Clinton, Carlton, Burgoyne, Prevost, Tarleton, Rawdon, Cornwallis.

Battles. Forty-three battles were fought; eighteen were gained by the Americans, and two were indecisive. Twice during this war a British army had to surrender to the Americans: Burgoyne at Saratoga to Gates, (October, 1777,) and Cornwallis at Yorktown to Washington, (October, 1781.) *The eighteen American victories:* In 1775, Lexington and Ticonderoga; in 1776, Fort Moultrie and Trenton; in 1777, Princeton, Fort Schuyler, Bennington, (two,) Stillwater, (fol-

lowed by Burgoyne's surrender,) and Fort Mercer; in 1778, Monmouth and Rhode Island; in 1779, Kettle Creek, Stony Point, and Paulus Creek; in 1780, King's Mountain; in 1781, Cowpens and Yorktown. *The British victories:* in 1775, Bunker's Hill and Quebec; in 1776, Long Island, White Plains, and Fort Washington; in 1777, Ticonderoga, Brandywine, and Germantown; in 1778, the massacre of Wyoming and Cherry Valley, and the capture of Savannah; in 1779, Sunbury, Brier Creek, Stono Ferry, and Savannah; in 1790, Monk's Corner, Charleston, Sanders' Creek, and Fishing Creek; in 1781, Guilford, Hobkirk's Hill, Ninety-six, and Fort Griswold. *The two indecisive battles:* Stillwater, (1777,) and Eutaw Springs, (1781.)

Cause of peace. The surrender of the British army under Cornwallis at Yorktown.

Peace. At Paris, (January, 1783.) England consented to acknowledge the independence of the United States of America.

Remark. The principal injury England sustained was the addition of $500,-000,000 to her national debt; for a few years served to convince even the most skeptical that the trade with America as an independent empire was far more valuable than it had ever been while she remained a dependent colony.

II. The Wars of the First Coalition against France.

a. The Austro-Prussian Coalition.

Cause. The declaration of Pillnitz (declaring the readiness of Austria and Prussia to adopt measures for the emancipation of Louis XVI.) was considered a cause for war by the French revolutionists. They force Louis XVI. to declare war against the emperor Francis II., who confides the whole conduct of this war to his ally, Frederick William II., king of Prussia.

Duration. About one year, (1792.)

Theatre of war. Champagne, Belgium, Savoy.

Object of the war. To restore the royal power in France.

Result of the war. The decapitation of the king, and the proclamation of the republic.

Parties. Prussians, Austrians, and Sardinians, against the French republicans.

Commanders. *French:* Dumouriez and Custine. *Allies:* Ferdinand of Brunswick.

Battles. The French victories of Valmy and Jemappes.

b. The Grand Coalition against France.

Cause. The execution of Louis XVI.

Duration. Three years, (1793–1795.)

Theatre of war. The valley of the Rhine and Belgium.

Object of the war. The restoration of the Bourbons to the French throne.

Result of the war. The recognition of the French republic as a European power.

Parties. All the European powers, (except Sweden, Denmark, Turkey, and the Swiss,) headed by England, against the French republic.

Commanders. *French:* Dumouriez, Jourdan, Pichegru. *The Allies:* Coburg and Kalkreuth.

Battles. *Gained by the French:* Watlignies, (1793;) Fleurus, (1794.) *Gained by the Allies:* Aldenhoven, (1793;) Neerwinden, (1793.)

Peace. At Bâle, (1795,) with Prussia and Spain.

Remark. The occupation of the left bank of the Rhine, the conquest of the Austrian Netherlands, the establishment of the Batavian republic as an humble ally of France, and the detachment of Prussia from the coalition, were the important consequences of the campaign of 1794.

c. The Grand Coalition after the Peace of Bâle.

Cause. The refusal of Austria and England to accede to the Peace of Bâle.

Duration. Two years, (1796–1797.)

Theatre of war. Southern Germany and northern Italy.

Object of the war. To force the emperor and England to acknowledge the French republic.

Result of the war. Acknowledgment of the French republic.

Parties. Austria, the German Empire, England, Naples, and Sardinia, against France.

Commanders. *French:* Jourdan, Moreau, Napoleon Bonaparte. *German:* Archduke Charles, Beaulieu, Wormser.

Campaigns. The German campaign of the French is a complete failure. The French defeated at Amburg and Wurzburg. Masterly retreat of Moreau. The Italian campaign REVEALS THE GENIUS OF NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

First campaign directed by Napoleon. The young general gained a series of successes so rapid and so brilliant as to strike the allies with dismay, and to attract the regards of all Europe. The victories of *Montenotte*, *Dego*, *Millesimo*, *Ceva*, and *Mondovi* asserted the superiority of the French, who, by the famous victory of the *Bridge of Lodi*, became masters of Lombardy. Mantua alone remained to the Austrians. Bonaparte besieged it. Two Austrian armies sent to relieve the town were met by Bonaparte and defeated — the one at Arcola — the other at Rivoli — and Mantua finally surrendered, (February, 1797.) It was in vain that the Austrians sent their greatest commander, the Archduke Charles, to retrieve what had been lost. He was obliged to retire; and Bonaparte led his army across the Alps, and prepared to march to Vienna.

Cause of peace. In consequence of insurrections in the Tyrol and the Venetian states, Bonaparte concluded first an armistice and then a peace.

Peace. At Campo Formio, (1797.) The emperor ceded the Austrian Netherlands to France, and recognized the Cisalpine republic, (Lombardy, with a part of the Venetian territory, Modena, and the three legations.) France was also to possess the Ionian islands, with some of the Venetian settlements in Albania.

Remark. Thus the revolution had proved itself stronger than Europe. The ancient political system of the continent had been shaken to its foundations.

III. Bonaparte's Expedition against Egypt and Syria.

Cause. The Turkish monarchy was believed to be on the eve of extinction,

and the French wished to secure a share of its spoils: the possession of Egypt would augment the French power and commerce in the East, and would be a sure step toward the ruin of England. Egypt being the great commercial highway to India, it was conceived that the conquest of this country would inflict an irreparable blow upon the power of Britain.

Duration. Four years, (1798–1801.)

Theatre of war. Egypt and Palestine.

Object of the war. To make Egypt a French province.

Result of the war. The scientific conquest and rediscovery of Egypt.

Parties. The French, against the Mamelukes, Turks, and English.

Commanders. *French:* Napoleon Bonaparte, Berthier, Kléber, Dessaix, Menou. *Allies:* Nelson, Sir Sidney Smith, Achmet, Djezzar, Abercrombie.

Campaign. *The journey to Egypt:* The French fleet, with 40,000 men, leaves Toulon, May 19th, 1798; they seize Malta and disembark at Alexandria, on July 2d. On the first of August, however, the French fleet is utterly destroyed in the bay of Aboukir by the English, under *Nelson.* This victory gives the English the complete command of the Mediterranean sea. *The campaign in Egypt:* After many fatigues, the French army reached Cairo, which they occupied after the Battle of the Pyramids, (July 21st, 1798.) Bonaparte proceeded now to arrange a new government in Egypt, and convert it into a dependency of France. He did not despair of being able to rouse the Oriental populations in his favor, and to establish a new empire. The Porte having declared war against France in consequence of these proceedings, Bonaparte marched into Syria. His hope was that the Syrians would rally round him, and that thus, with a power increasing as he went, he might reach Constantinople through Asia Minor. He stormed Jaffa, but was foiled in his attempts on *Acre,* the key of Syria, (defended by Sir Sidney Smith.) In May, 1799, Bonaparte retreated from Palestine back into Egypt. Having defeated the Turkish army, which had landed at Aboukir, Bonaparte quitted Egypt, in August, 1799. He left Kléber in command of the army, who, after gaining the victory of Heliopolis, was assassinated. The French were obliged to evacuate Egypt by the Anglo-Turkish army, in the latter part of 1801.

Peace. The Porte being assured of the evacuation of Egypt by the French, the preliminaries of a peace with France were signed at Paris, October 9th, 1801, but they were not converted into a definitive treaty till after the conclusion of the peace of Amiens. All the Turkish possessions were restored; the French were to enjoy all their former privileges of navigation and commerce, and particularly were to have the right of entering the Black sea.

IV. War of the Second Coalition against France.

Cause. The violent proceedings of the French government, (the Directory.) They had changed by force of arms: I. *The Papal States* into a Roman republic; and II. *The Swiss Confederation* into a Swiss republic. The German Empire was deprived of all its possessions on the left bank of the Rhine, and Piedmont was taken from the king of Sardinia.

Duration. Three years, (1799–1802.)

Theatre of war. Italy, Germany, Switzerland, and the Netherlands.

Object of the war. The restoration of the Bourbons to the French throne.

Result of the war. Napoleon Bonaparte absolute master of France.

Parties. England, Russia, Turkey, Austria, and Naples, against France.

Commanders. *French:* Napoleon Bonaparte, Moreau, Dessaix, Berthier, Soult, Massena. *Allies:* Suwarow, Archduke Charles, Melas.

Campaigns. I. In Italy: The French driven out of Italy by Suwarow, (1799.) In the spring of 1800, Bonaparte's famous campaign of forty days, crowned by the victory of Marengo, (June 14th, 1800.) II. In Germany and Switzerland: The French driven back by Archduke Charles; but in the fall of 1800, Moreau drove the Austrians back to the Inn, and gained the decisive victory of Hohenlinden, (December 3d, 1800.) III. In the Netherlands: An attempt was made to bring back the prince of Orange to Holland, but the incapacity and dilatoriness of the duke of York occasioned the failure of the whole undertaking.

Peace. At Luneville, (in February, 1801,) between France and Austria. All the territory on the left bank of the Rhine was ceded to France, and the Austrian possessions of Italy were limited as before. The emperor also recognized the four republics (Batavian, Helvetian, Ligurian, and Cisalpine,) as states affiliated to France. The other powers gradually followed the example of Austria, and after considerable negotiation the celebrated Peace of Amiens (see this) was concluded.

V. War of the Third Coalition against France.

a. The War.

Cause. The English government complained of the non-fulfilment of the conditions of the peace of Amiens, and declared war.

Duration. Three years, (1803–1805.)

Theatre of war. Southern Germany, northern Italy, the Atlantic.

Object of the war. The overthrow of Napoleon Bonaparte.

Result of the war. Napoleon the undisputed master of Western Europe. The house of Austria completely excluded from Italy.

Parties. England, Russia, and (at a later period) Austria and Sweden, against France. Prussia remains neutral.

Commanders. *French:* Napoleon, Bernadotte, Murat, Massena, Ney, Davoust, Lannes. *Allies:* Nelson, Mack, Archduke Charles, Kutusow, Bagration.

Decisive battles. At the battle of *the three emperors,* at Austerlitz, (December 2d, 1805,) Napoleon defeated the combined Austrians and Russians in the most signal manner. Before this (October 21st, 1805,) the French fleet had been annihilated off Cape Trafalgar, by the English, under Nelson, (who was shot during the engagement. See Nelson.)

Peace. At Presburg, (December 23d, 1805.) The emperor Francis acknowledged Napoleon's dignities as emperor of the French and king of Italy, and ceded to him, as king of Italy, the Austrian possessions of Venice and Dalmatia. Francis ceded also the Tyrol to Bavaria, and his possessions in Suabia to the electors of Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Baden, all of whom were declared independent sovereigns, Bavaria and Würtemberg with the title of king.

b. Consequences of the Battle of Austerlitz and the Peace of Presburg.

Creation of kingdoms and principalities by Napoleon, at the expense, for the most part, of the Empire, and his federative system of thrones and dignities in support of his own. The crown of Naples was given to his brother Joseph, the Dutch republic was made a kingdom for his brother Louis, (father of Napoleon III.,) and Murat, his brother-in-law, was made grand-duke of Cleves and Berg, (which he exchanged later for the crown of Naples.)

On July 12th, 1806, the German Empire was dismembered, sixteen princes in the south and west of Germany separating themselves from the empire, and forming the Rhenish confederacy, of which Napoleon declared himself the protector. This was virtually a dissolution of the German Empire; and feeling it to be so, and at the same time obliged to submit, the emperor Francis, by a deed dated August 6th, 1806, renounced the imperial crown of Germany, and assumed the new title of Francis I., emperor of Austria. Thus, after an existence of nearly a thousand years, ended the empire of the German Cæsars.

VI. War of the Fourth Coalition against France.

a. The War.

Cause. The insolent and overbearing conduct of France, and the unmeasured contempt shown by her for Prussia, leads Prussia to declare war against Napoleon.

Duration. One year, (1806–1807.)

Theatre of war. Thuringia.

Object of the war. To restore the Prussian monarchy to its former independence.

Result of the war. Prussia is reduced to the rank of a second-rate power.

Parties. Prussia, Russia, Saxony, England, and Sweden, against Napoleon.

Commanders. *French:* Napoleon, Lannes, Davoust, Ney, Augereau, Murat, Bernadotte. *Allies:* the duke of Brunswick, the king of Prussia, Hohenlohe, Blücher, Tauenzien, Möllendorf.

Decisive battles. Two great battles, fought on the same day, (October 14th, 1806,) the one at Jena, where Napoleon in person defeated Prince Hohenlohe, the other at Auerstadt, where Davoust defeated the duke of Brunswick, decided the fate of the campaign, and placed Prussia at the mercy of the conqueror. The French entered Berlin, (October 25th.) A Russian army of 90,000 men came to the rescue of the Prussians. On the 14th of June, 1807, Napoleon gained a decisive battle over the combined Russians and Prussians at Friedland, and the French army entered Tilsit on the eastern frontier of Prussia.

Peace. At Tilsit, (July, 1807,) between France and Russia, to which the poor Prussian monarch gave his unwilling assent. Prussia was stripped of nearly one-half of her territories.

b. Prussia after the Peace of Tilsit.

Of the forfeited territories of Prussia, those on the left bank of the Elbe, together with portions of the territories of Brunswick and Hesse-Cassel went to form the new kingdom of Westphalia, which was bestowed on Napoleon's youngest brother, Jerome Bonaparte. The forfeited territories in the southeast (portions of ancient Poland) were erected into a new state, called "the duchy of Warsaw," the sovereignty of which was conferred on Napoleon's new ally and favorite, the new king of Saxony. The remainder of Prussia was *given back* to Frederick William, with this important reservation, that the French armies still continued to occupy it till the contributions imposed should be paid.

c. Consequences of the Peace of Tilsit. The Continental System.

All the enemies of Napoleon had been vanquished or gained over; but England, though left alone, continued the struggle. Napoleon resolved to ruin her by destroying her commerce. By a decree issued from Berlin, (November 21st, 1806,) he declared the whole of Great Britain to be in a state of blockade, prohibited all intercourse, ordered the confiscation of all British property, and the arrest of all British subjects within the bounds of the empire, and authorized the capture of all vessels that had come from a British port.

d. The Enforcement of the Continental System.

Russia and Prussia acceded to the continental system immediately after the peace of Tilsit; Spain and Austria in the beginning of 1808.

Pope Pius VII. refused to give his sanction to a system which he declared to be inconsistent with Christian principles. Hereupon Rome was occupied by French troops, (February, 1808.)

Denmark was preparing to accede to the continental system and put her fleet at Napoleon's service, when an English expedition appeared before Copenhagen and demanded the surrender of the fleet, as a guarantee of Denmark's neutrality till the conclusion of peace. This having been refused, Copenhagen was bombarded and the Danish fleet captured, and taken to England. Hereupon Denmark acceded at once to the continental system.

Sweden refused to accede to the continental system. In consequence of this it was invaded by Russia, and Finland was detached from the Swedish crown, (1807.)

Portugal, summoned to join the commercial league against Britain, yielded so far as to close her ports against British ships, but refused to confiscate the property of British residents. To punish the regent of Portugal for this, Marshal *Junot*, with a French army, invaded Portugal, (October 19th, 1807.) The royal family fled to Brazil. Lisbon was then occupied by the French; and the whole country was treated as a conquered province, and a levy of twenty millions of dollars exacted from it.

VII. The Peninsular War.

Causes. 1. The occupation of Portugal by the French. 2. The entrance of a large army into Spain, under pretext of protecting that country against an English invasion. 3. Family troubles in the royal house, the end of which was that the aged king (Charles IV.) ceded his rights in Spain to Napoleon. (The

heir to the throne, Ferdinand, was sent as a prisoner to Valençay.) 4. The crown of Spain, under a fixed constitutional charter, was then conferred on Joseph Bonaparte. (Murat was appointed his successor in the kingdom of Naples.)

Duration. Six years, (1808–1813.)

Theatre of war. The whole of the peninsula of the Pyrenees.

Object of the war. To drive the French out of the peninsula of the Pyrenees.

Result of the war. The French driven from the peninsula.

Parties. The Spaniards and Portuguese, assisted by the English, against the French.

Commanders. *Anglo-Spanish:* WELLINGTON, Dalrymple, Beresford, Baird, PALAFOX, Castanos. *French:* Junot, Kellermann, Lefèbvre, Soult, Massena, Marmont.

Decisive battles. *Anglo-Spanish victories:* Baylen, (1808;) Vimeira, (1808;) Talavera, (1810;) Salamanca, (1812;) Vittoria, (1813.) *French victories:* Guenes, (1808;) Tudela, (1808;) Somo Sierra, (1808;) Ocano, (1809.)

End of the war. By the act of December, 1813, Ferdinand (eldest son of Charles IV.) was acknowledged by Napoleon as king of Spain and the Indies, and the integrity of Spain was recognized as it existed before the war. At first this was under condition that the English should evacuate the Spanish territory, but soon the Spanish princes were informed that they could return to their country without any conditions whatever.

VIII. The Franco-Austrian War.

Cause. The events in Spain had aroused a spirit of resistance in Austria, and as soon as she had completed her preparations, the Austrian minister delivered to the French government a declaration, in which were enumerated all the insults and injuries Austria had suffered at the hands of France since the peace of Presburg.

Duration. Seven months, (April–October, 1809.)

Theatre of war. Southern Germany.

Object of the war. To drive the French out of Germany.

Result of the war. Napoleon absolute master in Germany. Austria entirely paralyzed.

Parties. Austria, allied with England, against France and the confederacy of the Rhine.

Commanders. *Austrian:* the archdukes Charles, John, and Louis. *French:* Napoleon, Eugène Beauharnais, Bessieres, Oudinot, Lannes, Lefèbvre.

Decisive battles. Eckmühl, WAGRAM.

On the 21st and 22d of May, 1809, Napoleon was defeated for the first time near the villages of Aspern and Esling, by the archduke Charles.

Peace. At Schönbrunn, (October, 1809.) Austria was surrounded by powerful states, and all her military efforts were paralyzed. On the south she lost the defiles which communicated with Italy and the Tyrol, and the means of defence offered by a natural frontier. On the west she was deprived of the excellent line of operations formed by the Inn. In addition to a large levy of money, she parted with a portion of her territories, containing three and a half millions of souls. Some of these districts were given to Bavaria; and Carniola, part of Croatia, and Carinthia, with Trieste for a capital, were ceded to Napoleon himself. They were governed as an independent state, of which Marmont was governor.

Remark I. An interesting episode in this war was THE REVOLT IN THE TYROL. The separation of the Tyrol from Austria and its annexation to Bavaria, (by the peace of Presburg, in 1805,) had roused an intense spirit of patriotism among the mountaineers. Revolting (April, 1809) from Bavaria, and demanding to be reunited to Austria, the peasants, under various popular leaders, (Andrew Hofer and Speckbacher,) drove the Franco-Bavarian garrisons out of their country. Even after the battle of Wagram had made all resistance hopeless, the Tyrolese peasants continued the war. But French armies were poured into their country, and the patriotic bands were dispersed. Some of the leaders escaped; but Hofer was seized, carried to Mantua, and there shot, January 5th, 1810.)

Remark II. After the peace of Schönbrunn, which seemed to have consolidated his power, Napoleon resolved to strengthen and to perpetuate his dynasty by a marriage with an Austrian archduchess. His overtures being accepted by the emperor Francis, Napoleon was married to the emperor's daughter, Maria Louisa, (April, 1810.)

IX. The Franco-Russian War.

Cause. The incorporation of the Hanseatic towns (Hamburg, Bremen, and Lübeck) with France was considered by Czar Alexander as an act prejudicial to the power of Russia in the Baltic. Alexander retaliated by making some relaxations in favor of British commerce, contrary to the stipulations of the continental system. Russia complained also of the annexation of Galicia to the duchy of Warsaw, and of the continued occupation of Prussia by French troops.

Duration. Hardly six months, (June–December, 1812.)

Theatre of war. Western Russia.

Object of the war. To destroy Russia, and make ONE UNIVERSAL EMPIRE of Europe. Napoleon said: "*I must make one nation out of all the European states, and Paris must be the capital of the world. There must be all over Europe but one legislative code, one court of appeal, one currency, one standard of weights and measures.*"

Result of the war. Total destruction of Napoleon's army and influence.

Parties. Western Europe, (excluding Great Britain, Spain, and Sweden,) against Russia.

Strength of both parties. Napoleon's forces amounted to nearly 700,000 men, (among whom were 400,000 Frenchmen,) divided into five distinct armies; the Russian forces to nearly 400,000 men, divided into three distinct armies.

Commanders. *French:* Napoleon, Davoust, NEY, Oudinot, Murat, Eugène Beauharnais, Junot, St. Cyr, Macdonald. *French allies:* Poniatowski, (Poles;) Schwartzenberg, (Austrians;) York, (Prussians); *Russian:* Wittgenstein, Barclay de Tolly, Bagration, Tormassof, Kutusow.

The march to Moscow. On the 24th of June, 1812, the Niemen was crossed by 400,000 men of the invading army. The Russians slowly retired before them, devastating the country in the route of their march. The results of this were more formidable to Napoleon than he had expected. He found, however, no difficulty in taking possession of Lithuania, the capital of which he entered on the 28th of June. Meanwhile the Russians had fallen back to the Dnieper and the Dwina. Napoleon crossed the Dnieper and arrived at Smolensk on the 16th of August. The Russians had retreated in good order, leaving little else than the blazing ruins. Napoleon continued the pursuit, and on the 7th of September the two main armies met and engaged in battle at BORODINO, on the river Moskwa. The French were victorious, and on the 13th of September entered Moscow. (See BURNING OF Moscow, page 106.) On the 19th of October, or five weeks after his first entry into Moscow, he gave the order for retreat.

The retreat from Moscow. Now began one of the most disastrous marches of which there is any record in history. Napoleon's plan was to retreat toward Smolensk, but the main army of the Russians was between him and Smolensk. He was defeated by them at *Maro-Jaroslavitz* and *Wiazma*. Ney was now placed in command of the rear, with instructions to offer as stubborn a resistance to the Russians as possible, so as to gain time for the advanced portions of the army. On the 6th of November, the Russian winter set in suddenly with more than its usual severity. It was not till the 9th that the wreck of the army reached Smolensk, when it appeared that not more than 36,000 fighting men remained. Ten days later, (at Orcha,) not more than 12,000 men were fit for duty, who were here joined by a reserve corps of 50,000 men. Napoleon reached the Berezina with about 60,000 men.

In THE PASSAGE OF THE BEREZINA, (November 26th and 27th,) more than 20,000 men perished. Hardly 40,000 reached Wilna. Not more than 30,000 reached the Niemen, which was crossed December 13th, the remnant of the army of 400,000 men that had crossed the river six months before.

Napoleon had left his army (on the 5th of December, at Smorgoni) in a sledge, accompanied only by his secretary, and hastened to Paris by the nearest route, where he arrived on the 18th of December.

Ney, *the bravest of the brave*, is the hero of the retreat from Moscow.

Consequences. The impression produced on all Europe by the results of the Russian expedition was prodigious. It seemed as if fortune had now decisively turned against Napoleon, and as if the nations had only to exert a little strength to complete his ruin. Prussia was the first to stir.

X. *War of the Fifth Coalition against France.*

a. General Summary.

General cause. The failure of Napoleon's Russian campaign.

Immediate cause. The Prussian general York, instead of obeying Napoleon's order to cover the retreat of the left wing of the French army under Macdonald, concludes a treaty of neutrality with the Russians under General Diebitsch.

Duration. About one year, (March, 1813–April, 1814.)

Theatre of war. Northern Germany, Belgium, France, Spain.

Object of the war. The liberation of Europe from the despotism of Napoleon.

Result of the war. Destruction of the empire of Napoleon.

Parties. Russia, Prussia, England, Sweden, and afterward Austria, against France.

Commanders. *French:* Napoleon, NEY, Eugène Beauharnais, Maison, Augereau, Soult, Oudinot, Macdonald, Vandamme, Davoust. *Allies:* Wittgenstein, BLÜCHER, Scharnhorst, Schwartzenberg, Bernadotte, WELLINGTON, Moreau.

b. Campaign of 1813.

Spring campaign. Battles of Lützen and Bautzen, gained by Napoleon over the allies under Wittgenstein and Blücher. Napoleon consented to an armistice, (from June 4th until August 10th,) in the hope that Austria would eventually join him against the allies. The armistice having expired, Austria openly joined the allies, and the war was resumed.

Fall campaign. Napoleon had hardly 350,000 men to oppose against not less than 700,000 men of the allies, divided into three grand armies: 1st. The army of Bohemia, under Schwartzenberg, in whose camp were the three allied monarchs of Russia, Prussia, and Austria. 2d. The army of Silesia, under Blücher. 3d. The army of the north, under Bernadotte.

The army of Bohemia marched upon Dresden, and Napoleon (engaged in driving the army of Silesia beyond the *Katzbach*) was compelled to proceed by forced marches to that city. On August 27th, 1813, Napoleon gained his last victory on German ground at DRESDEN. This battle was one of Napoleon's most splendid successes. So entire was the defeat of the allies that if Napoleon had offered to negotiate, he might have been able to detach Russia or Prussia from the coalition.

Several great victories (Katzbach, Culm, Grossbeeren, Dennewitz,) gained about the same time by the allies, neutralized the effects of the triumph at Dresden. Retreat of the French, who abandon the line of the Saale and the Elbe, and concentration of their forces at Leipsic in conjunction with the Saxon troops. GREAT BATTLE OF LEIPSIC, "*the battle of the nations,*" UTTER DEFEAT OF NAPOLEON, (16th, 17th, and 18th of October, 1813.) Napoleon retreats with the remains of his army. Not more than 40,000 are led across the Rhine.

c. Consequences of the Battle of Leipsic.

1. Dissolution of the confederation of the Rhine, of the kingdom of Westphalia, and the grand-duchies of Frankfort and Berg.
2. The surrender of all the French garrisons in Germany, except Hamburg, (which held out under Davoust, until May 26th, 1814.)
3. The reconquest of Holland by Bülow, and proclamation of the prince of Orange as sovereign of the Netherlands.
4. Invasion of Denmark (in alliance with Napoleon) by Bernadotte, and forced surrender by Denmark of Norway to Sweden.
5. Restoration of the Tyrol and Illyria to Austria.
6. Alliance of Murat, king of Naples, with Austria, for the expulsion of the French from Italy.

7. Treaty of neutrality with Napoleon formed by Switzerland, as yet too weak to throw off the French yoke.

Blücher with his army crosses the Rhine at Mannheim, Caub, and Coblentz, (December 31st, 1813.) Declaration previously (December 1st) of the allied sovereigns at Frankfort; peace offered to Napoleon; the boundaries of France to be the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees; rejected by Napoleon.

d. Campaign of the Allied Armies in France.

Parties. The three great armies, (of Bohemia, Silesia, and the North,) the Austrians in Italy under Bellegarde, the British and Portuguese under Wellington in the south of France, the Anglo-Sicilian and Spanish armies about Catalonia, amounting to more than one million of men, *against* Napoleon, who could hardly muster 300,000 men.

Campaign. Along the whole eastern and north-eastern frontier of France was scattered the invading host, slowly moving in distinct bodies inward, till they should be concentrated at Paris. Napoleon set out from Paris on the 23d of January, to assume the command in person. His genius as a general was never more conspicuous than now, and the amount of his success with his small means was prodigious.

Between the 1st and 18th of February he defeated the allies in SEVEN *pitched battles*, (Champaubert, Montmirail, Chateau-Thierry, Vauchamp, Nangis, Villeneuve-le-Comte, and Montereau,) and FORCED THEM TO RETREAT.

Result of the February campaign of 1814. Treaty of *Chaumont*, (March 1st, 1814,) between the four allied powers, (Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia.) They saw that only a firm agreement among themselves would prevent a peace which would throw away all the fruits of their victory at Leipsic. The allied armies *form a junction*, and march upon Paris. Battle close to Paris, and *storming of the heights of Montmartre* by the allied armies. The allies enter Paris, March 31st, 1814.

Peace. Treaty of Fontainebleau, (April 11th, 1814,) between the allies and Napoleon, who abdicates and retires to Elba. Peace of Paris, (May 30th,) between the allies and France. France reduced to her boundaries of 1792. Return of the house of Bourbon. — Louis XVIII, (see GENEALOGY, VII.,) assumed the throne of his forefathers, not as an absolute monarch ruling solely by hereditary right, but as a constitutional king, bound in the exercise of his power by certain laws and forms.

Remark. This peace lasted only eleven months, (April 11th, 1814–March 1st, 1815.)

XI. Congress of Vienna.

It was agreed to refer the settlement of all those questions, territorial and other, which the fall of Napoleon left pending, to a grand congress of sovereigns and their plenipotentiaries, to be held at Vienna. This Congress was opened on the 25th of September, 1814.

Duration. About eight months, (September 25th, 1814–June 9th, 1815.)

Principal members. The emperor of Russia, the kings of Prussia, Bavaria, Würtemberg, and Denmark, and many of the smaller German princes, and by plenipotentiaries acting for Great Britain, (Lord Castlereagh, and afterward the duke of Wellington;) Austria, (Metternich;) France, (Talleyrand:) Spain, Portugal, and Sweden. The five principal European powers, (Russia, Prussia, Great Britain, Austria, and France,) exercised the greatest weight in the congress.

On the whole, Alexander, emperor of Russia, was the chief man in it, and his will was most potent in influencing the decisions.

Decisions. The chief subjects of debate were: ITALY, THE NETHERLANDS, POLAND, GERMANY, ENGLAND, and SWEDEN.

A. ITALY. *Austria* recovered Lombardy, and received the Venetian territories, (in exchange for Belgium.) Sardinia, Tuscany, and the Papal States were restored; and beside the Pope and Tuscany in central Italy, there were, as before, to be some petty sovereignties. Murat was left for the present in possession of Naples, which he was soon to lose by his own act.

B. THE NETHERLANDS. Holland and Belgium were erected into the *kingdom of the Netherlands*, in favor of the prince of Orange, with the title of William I.; though warning voices already proclaimed the danger of uniting two countries so different in language, customs, and religion.

C. POLAND. All those portions of Old Poland which Prussia had seized in the three partitions, had been formed by Napoleon (1807) into the duchy of Warsaw. Nearly the whole of this duchy was made into a new European state, called *the kingdom of Poland*, to be possessed forever by the emperors of Russia as an appendage of their empire, though politically distinct from it. The extent of this new kingdom was about one-sixth of the territory and population of Poland prior to the three partitions. Cracow was recognized as an independent republic.

D. GERMANY. 1. A federative constitution was established for Germany, with a diet to be held at Frankfort-on-the-Main. The kings of Denmark (for Holstein) and the Netherlands (for Luxemburg) were to be members of the confederation. The number of states was limited to thirty-eight, each of which was required to send representatives to the federal diet.

Prussia obtained Posen and Swedish Pomerania, Westphalia, the Rhine provinces, and a part of Saxony.

E. ENGLAND had Malta, Heligoland, (taken from Denmark,) a portion of the colonies which she had conquered in the war, Hanover (with the addition of East-Friesland) as a German kingdom, and the protectorate of the republic of the Ionian isles.

F. SWEDEN obtained Norway at the expense of Denmark.

XII. The Hundred Days.

Cause. Many had received the new order of things with distrust, which was continually increased by reactionary decrees. The army, stationed in obscure garrisons, bemoaned its old eagles, which were now replaced by the fleurs-de-lis, and wrathfully hid the tricolor under the white cockade. It became the most formidable focus of discontent, and, instead of doing all in its power to attach it to itself, the government was constantly putting measures into execution which could not fail to alienate the soldiers.

Immediate cause. Napoleon escaped from Elba with 1,200 of his veterans, and landed at Frejus, near Cannes, (March 1st, 1815.)

Duration. Four months, (March 1st, 1815–June 29th, 1815.)

Theatre of war. Belgium.

Object of the war. Napoleon wished to recover his throne.

Result of the war. Napoleon loses not only his throne, but even his liberty.

Parties. Napoleon against united Europe. Enormous forces raised by the allies, amounting to no less than 986,000 men, (England supplies subsidies, in all $55,000,000.) Against this huge force, Napoleon could only command about 220,000 men, consisting partly of the troops he found on entering France, partly of disbanded veterans, called again to his standard.

Commanders. *The Allies:* Wellington, Blücher, Bülow, Ziethen. *The French:* Napoleon, Ney, Soult, Grouchy.

From Cannes to Paris. Napoleon advanced by forced marches through the midst of populations among whom he hoped to find the most sympathy for himself and his cause. Grenoble and Lyons opened their gates in succession. The soldiers everywhere responded to the appeal of their old general; Ney's corps followed the example; Ney himself was induced to do the same. In fact, the battalions despatched against the emperor served only to augment his escort. Louis XVIII. found himself compelled to fly from Paris, (March 20th,) and on the evening of the same day Napoleon entered the capital.

At Paris. Napoleon proclaimed that he returned with a new system of home and foreign policy; that, in harmony with the wishes of the people, he desired a free constitution; that he intended to resign his project of a great empire, since the movement in Europe in favor of peace and the independent existence of nations had arrested him in his course of victory. Fouché, Carnot, Cambacérès, and his own brother, Lucien, were the ministers on whom he chiefly relied. A new constitution prepared by them was solemnly proclaimed and sworn to in the presence of a vast assembly in the *Champ de Mai*, (June 1st, 1815.)

The last campaign. Napoleon left Paris for Belgium, June 12th. The English and Prussian armies, under Wellington and Blücher, already stood upon the Belgian frontiers, and Napoleon determined to attack them before the Austrians and Prussians could come up. He resorted to his old strategy of attacking one army after the other, and endeavoring to separate Wellington and Blücher. On June 15th, the French crossed the Sambre, defeated Ziethen, took Charleroi, and compelled the Prussians to retire to Ligny.

At LIGNY, (June 16th,) Blücher was routed with immense loss by Napoleon. The British, meanwhile, on the same day, (June 16th,) stood their ground at QUATRE BRAS. Wellington, however, hearing of Blücher's defeat, fell back with his whole army upon WATERLOO, and here Napoleon came up to give him battle, (June 18th, 1815.) The English, after bravely fighting throughout the day, were beginning to waver toward evening, when BLÜCHER appeared on the field, and in conjunction with WELLINGTON, completely routed the French army, which fled in disorder, pursued by the Prussians.

Immediate results of the Battle of Waterloo. Blücher arrived on the 22d of June, at Paris, where Napoleon had a second time abdicated (in favor of his son.) Napoleon set out for Rochefort, (June 29th,) with a view of escaping to America. Finding the coasts too strictly blockaded by British cruisers to give him a chance of escape, he was obliged to surrender to Captain Maitland, of the Bellerophon. On board of this vessel he was carried to England, where, however, he was not permitted to land, but having been transferred to another ship-of-war, was immediately, by the orders of the British government, conveyed to St. Helena. (See NAPOLEON.) Second occupation of Paris by the allies, (July, 1815.)

Peace. Second treaty of Paris, (November, 1815,) by which France is allowed to retain Elzass and Lorraine, but gives up four fortresses on the border; and agrees to pay a contribution to the expenses of the war of $140,000,000, and to restore the works of art of which she had pillaged nearly every capital in Europe. *Occupation of France by the troops of the allied sovereigns till* 1818.

Remark. In order to secure the permanence of that peace which had now, to all appearance, been perfectly established in Europe, the emperors of Russia and Austria, and the king of Prussia, formed what was called a HOLY ALLIANCE, (September 26th, 1815;) that is, an alliance by which they pledged themselves to regulate their future conduct by the principles of Christianity, to rule as men responsible to Heaven, and to assist each other as brothers in any new European emergency that might arise. All the powers eventually joined this alliance except Great Britain.

XIII. Anglo-American War.

Causes. English aggressions on American commerce, and impressment of American sailors on the high seas as British deserters.

Duration. Nearly three years, (June, 1812–February, 1815.)

Theatre of war. Principally along the borders of the United States and Canada.

Parties. The United States against Great Britain.

Commanders. *American:* Army — Dearborn, Hull, Van Rensselaer, HARRISON, Hampton, Clay, JACKSON. Navy — PERRY, MCDONOUGH, Decatur, Bainbridge, Porter, Hull, Jones. *British:* Army — Brock, Proctor, Prevost, Drummond, Ross, Packenham. Navy — Downie, Barclay, etc.

Battles. On land the operations of the American army were frequently unsuccessful, but at sea the American navy gained imperishable glory, (Perry's victory on Lake Erie, and McDonough's victory on Lake Champlain.) Although America had only 8 frigates, 8 sloops, and 170 small gunboats to fight the colossal navy of England, nevertheless, out of 20 naval engagements, 15 proved to be American victories.

Land battles: Gained by the Americans. In 1813: York, Fort Meigs, Fort George, Sackett's Harbor, Fort Stephenson, NEAR THE THAMES. In 1814: Chippeway, LUNDY'S LANE, Fort Erie, PLATTSBURG, North Point, Fort McHenry. In 1815: NEW ORLEANS, (fought after the signing of the peace.) Gained by the English: in 1812, Queenstown; in 1813, Frenchtown; in 1814, BLADENSBURG, followed by the BURNING OF WASHINGTON by the English.

Peace. At Ghent, (December, 1814.) The treaty of peace said nothing about the aggressions on American commerce and impressment of sailors on the high

seas, which had caused the war; but it was tacitly understood that there would be no further difficulty on these points.

XIV. The War of Spanish Independence in America.

Causes. The ruinous nature of the mercantile system which was forced by Spain on its colonies. It was prescribed by Spain what produce the colonists should cultivate. All kinds of manufacturing industry were strictly forbidden. They were prohibited, under pain of death, from trading with any nation except Spain. The American and French revolutions remained not without effect on the Spanish colonies. A spirit of disaffection to the mother country, and a desire for independence began to spread from colony to colony.

Duration. Nearly fifteen years, (1810–1825.)

Theatre of war. It gradually spread through the whole of Spanish America, except the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico. Spanish America, at the beginning of the war, consisted of four vice-royalties, (Mexico, New Granada, Peru, and Buenos Ayres,) and five general-capitanates, (Guatimala, Venezuela, Chili, Cuba, and Porto Rico.)

Parties. The royalists or adherents of the mother country assisted by Spain, against the patriots, who received assistance from the United States and Great Britain.

Commanders. *Patriots:* SIMON BOLIVAR, (see this,) Miranda, Rosas, Carera, Paez, Santander, Sucre, Iturbide. *Royalists:* Morillo, La Torre.

Decisive battles. *Gained by the Americans:* Bochica, (1819;) Carabobo, (1821;) Junin, (1823;) Ayacucho, (1824.)

Results. The chief results were, that Bolivar achieved the independence of Venezuela and Granada, which were erected into the republic of Colombia, (December, 1819.) In the previous May, Buenos Ayres had been constituted into the Argentine republic. The independence of Chili and Peru was also secured by the aid of Bolivar, and the republic of Bolivia was established in Upper Peru, (August, 1825.) In Mexico, Iturbide, who had become leader of the insurgents after the death of Hidalgos, Morelos, and Mina, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, in 1822, but was dethroned in the following year, when the republic of Mexico formed a league with Colombia. The independence of Colombia, Mexico, and Buenos Ayres was recognized by Great Britain, January 1st, 1825. In Paraguay, (a theocratic state, founded by the Jesuits, in the 17th century,) Dr. Francia ruled as despot from 1810 to 1837.

XV. The Wars for the Independence of Greece.

a. The Liberation of Greece.

That the Turks should have so long maintained their empire in Europe over people so much more numerous than themselves, must perhaps be ascribed to the circumstance that these peoples are composed of various races unfitted to combine in any general political object, and that the Turk, as a man, is far superior to those over whom he rules. Exclusive of Armenians and Jews, the European subjects of the Sultan were composed of four distinct races, speaking different languages, and having different laws and customs, to wit: Slavonians, Roumans, Albanians, and Greeks. But the Greeks, the smallest in point of number of all these races, comprising hardly more than one million of souls, have alone succeeded, by means of European sympathy, in asserting their entire independence of the Turks. The first insurrectionary movements broke out in 1821, but the patriot army was betrayed in the hands of the Turks, and the Greeks seemed resigned to submit to their conquerors.

Cause. The revolting cruelties practised by the Turkish government, even on those who had taken no part in the insurrectionary movement of 1821—especially the hanging of the patriarch of Constantinople and his bishops over the principal door of their cathedral.

Duration. Seven years, (1822–1828.)

Theatre of war. The coasts and islands of Ancient Greece.

Object of the war. To liberate the Greeks from the Turkish dominion.

Result of the war. The erection of the kingdom of Greece.

Parties. The Greeks, assisted by England, France, and Russia, against Turkey and Egypt. The Greeks were also assisted by volunteers from all Europe. All the educated men in Europe were seized with what was called the Philhellenic fever.

Commanders. *Greeks:* Ypsilanti, Mavrocordato, Noto Bozzaris. *Allies:* Byron, Stanhope, Codrington, Heyden, De Rigny, Maison. *Turks:* Sultan Mahmoud II., Ibrahim Pacha, Redschid Pacha.

Remarkable siege. The garrison of Missolonghi compelled by famine to surrender, (April, 1826.)

Decisive battle. The total destruction of the Turco-Egyptian fleet, (October 26th, 1827,) at Navarino.

Consequences of the battle of Navarino. The Sultan declared all treaties at an end; and though he consented to allow the Greeks an amnesty, he altogether rejected the idea of recognizing their independence. Hereupon, the three protecting powers declared Greece an independent state, and settled its northern boundary along a line drawn from the gulf of Volo to the gulf of Arta. The Greeks invited Capo d'Istrias, a native of Corfu, who had served with distinction as a political agent of Russia, to be their president, (1828.) Capo d'Istrias (whose severity had rendered him exceedingly unpopular) having fallen by the hand of an assassin, (1831,) the great powers nominated, as hereditary king of Greece, Prince Otto, of Bavaria, (1832.) He ruled Greece under the name of Otto I., from 1833 until 1862, when he was deprived of his throne by an insurrection. He was succeeded by George I. (See GENEALOGY, XIV.)

b. The Turco-Russian War.

Cause. The battle of Navarino naturally had enraged the Sultan He ordered the ambassadors of the three powers to leave Constantinople. To Russia the Porte gave particular cause of offence by refusing to carry out the stipulations of Akierman, and by an offensive firman. The emperor Nicholas, in consequence, declared war against the Sultan, (April 26th, 1828.)

Duration. About eighteen months, (1828–1829.)

Theatre of war. Turkey in Europe, and Asia Minor.
Object of the war. The annihilation of the Turkish Empire.
Result of the war. The establishment of Russian influence in the north (*Moldavia* and *Wallachia*,) and in the south (*Greece*) of Turkey.
Parties. Russia against Turkey. France and England remained idle spectators of this war, though a French army, under General Maison, was despatched to occupy the Morea.
Commanders. *Russian:* Wittgenstein, DIEBITSCH, Paskiewitsch.
Campaign. The Russians, under Wittgenstein, crossed the Pruth, in May, captured Braila and Varna, but were unable to pass the Balkan. This, however, was effected in the following summer by General Diebitsch, who, having taken Shumla, crossed the mountains and appeared before Adrianople, which immediately surrendered. The Russians had also been successful in Asia.
Peace. The Porte, seeing the inutility of further resistance, signed the peace of Adrianople, (September, 1829.)
Conditions of peace. 1. Russia received some districts near the Caucasus, with the fortress of Anopa. 2. The independence of Greece was recognized. 3. The independence of Servia was guaranteed. 4. The hospodars of Moldavia and Wallachia were to be appointed for life, and no Turks were to reside in those principalities.

XVI. The Mexican War.

Cause. The annexation of Texas to the United States, in 1845.
Duration. Two years, (March, 1846–February, 1848.)
Theatre of war. Mexico.
Object of the war. The recovery of Texas by the Mexicans.
Result of the war. Mexico loses New Mexico and California.
Parties. The Mexicans against the United States.
Commanders. *American:* TAYLOR, SCOTT, and Wool. *Mexican:* Santa Anna, Arista, Ampudia, Morales, Valencia.
Battles. Eleven battles were fought. The Americans were always victorious. In 1846: Palo Alto, Resaca de la Palma, Monterey. In 1847: Buena Vista, Vera Cruz, Cerro Gordo, Contreras, Cherubusco, Molino del Rey, Chapultepec.
Cause of peace. The taking of the city of Mexico by the Americans, on the 14th of September, 1847, made an end to the war.
Peace. At Guadalupe Hidalgo, (February, 1848.) New Mexico and California were ceded to the United States, and, in return, the Mexican government was to receive $15,000,000 for the ceded territory.

VIII. THE EUROPEAN REVOLUTION OF 1848.

A. FRANCE.

I. General Causes.

The European states had gradually ranged themselves into two classes. In the first class were the constitutionally governed states: Great Britain, France, Spain, Portugal, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and some of the minor German states.

There was another class of states, however, including Russia, Austria, Prussia, some of the minor German states, and all the Italian states, in which the theory was that the right of ruling and making laws belonged absolutely to certain dynasties, who, although morally bound to consult the interest of the governed populations, were not responsible to their subjects for their manner of doing so.

In all such absolutely governed states, there was a chronic strife between the people and their rulers. It was evident that a conflict was in preparation between the opposed principles of absolutism and representative government. The year 1848 witnessed the outbreak of this movement. It began in France, where the attempts of Louis Philippe and his prime minister, Guizot, to render the government gradually independent of the nation, and to follow the footsteps of the absolute empires, created a deep-felt discontent, which was increased by the unprecedented scarcity of the years 1846 and 1847. Disturbances broke out in several places, and the liberal party began to agitate an electoral reform.

II. The Revolution.

a. The Political Revolution.

The king, on opening the chambers, December 27th, 1847, plainly intimated his conviction that no reform was needed. In consequence of this, very sharp debates took place on the address, and the opposition determined to have a colossal reform banquet in the Champs Elysées, on February 22d, 1848; but it was forbidden by Guizot. The parliamentary liberals resented this act of power, and the republicans seized the opportunity. Barricades were erected in the streets of Paris, and Louis Philippe was obliged to abdicate, and flee with his family to England.

France was declared once more to be a republic, and a provisional government was established under Lamartine, Ledru-Rollin, Arago, etc.

b. The attempted Social Revolution.

The same dangerous elements were again afloat as in the first revolution, and if they did not gain the ascendency, it was because the higher and middle classes, instructed by experience, actively opposed them. Fifty-one communist clubs were established in Paris. The ultra-democrats, Cabet, Blanqui, and Raspail, formed a sort of triumvirate, and incited these clubs to proceed to extremities, in order to establish a red republic under Ledru-Rollin. But the citizens and

National Guards were on the alert; 100,000 National Guards assembled to preserve the peace, and the communist party were overawed. From this day, (April 16th, 1848,) the extreme party was defeated.

c. The Great Socialistic Outbreak.

The revolutionists of February had pronounced it to be the duty of the state to provide employment for its citizens, and had followed up this declaration by the establishment of national workshops with a view to the organization of labor. Thus the state was converted into a master-manufacturer, to whose service, as the pay was good and the superintendence not over-strict, flocked all the lazy, skulking mechanics of Paris and its neighborhood. They soon numbered 80,000, to be maintained at the public expense, for the ruin of private tradesmen.

An attempt of the government to dismiss part of these workmen produced one of the bloodiest battles Paris had yet seen, (300 barricades thrown up and 16,000 people killed and wounded.) The battle began on June 23d, and lasted four days; but the insurgents were at length subdued by the superior force of the troops of the line and the National Guards.

General Cavaignac, who had been appointed dictator during the struggle, now laid down his office, but was appointed chief of the Executive Commission, with the title of president of the council.

III. The Reaction.

The fear which socialism had inspired, had produced among the more educated classes a reaction in favor of monarchy. A new constitution was prepared, by which France was declared a republic, headed by a president, elected every four years by the direct suffrages of all the electors, in whom was vested the *sole executive authority*. The *legislative authority* was committed to a single assembly of 750 members, elected by all Frenchmen who had attained their twenty-first year.

For the presidency became candidates, Louis Napoleon, (Napoleon III., see GENEALOGY, VII.,) Cavaignac, Lamartine, Ledru-Rollin, and Raspail.

In his address to the electors, Louis Napoleon promised order at home, peace abroad, a reduction of taxes, and a ministry chosen from the best and most able men of all parties. The peasantry and the common soldiers were his chief supporters. The election took place, December 10th, when Napoleon obtained five and a half million of votes, while Cavaignac, who stood next, had only about one and a half million, and the other candidates but very small numbers. Napoleon was installed in the office which he had thus triumphantly won, December 20th, 1848.

B. AUSTRIA.

I. General Causes.

The political history of Austria, under the rule of Metternich, as prime minister, first for Francis I., (1815–1835,) and then for his son and successor Ferdinand II., (1835–1848,) may be said to have consisted in an incessant war between the central government and the four following elements of revolt:

1. GERMAN LIBERALISM, or the longing for political freedom and constitutional government, which existed chiefly among the young men of the educated classes. They were full of democratic opinions, and anxious for a revolution which would destroy the existing despotism.

2. MAGYARISM, or the desire of the Magyars (the ruling race in Hungary) to free their country from all foreign (Austrian) influence. They did not regard themselves as a portion of the Austrian Empire at all, but as a separate nation, whose hereditary sovereign chanced also to be the hereditary sovereign of Austria. There were two parties, however, in Hungary.

a. The Old Magyar Party, who wished to concede political rights to none but the Magyar nobles, they being, as it were, a governing caste in the midst of Slavonians and other serfs.

b. The New Hungarian Party, who thought the independence of Hungary could only be maintained by admitting all inhabitants of Hungary alike to political rights, and forming Magyars, Slavonians, and other races into one powerful nation. KOSSUTH was their leader.

3. ITALIAN PATRIOTISM, or the attempt of the inhabitants of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom to free themselves of the rule of the detested foreigners, (Austrians.) They continually formed conspiracies for overthrowing their rule; and it was only by a vigilant system of police and by keeping large garrisons in Venice, Milan, Mantua, Verona, Peschiera, Legnano, etc., that the Austrians were able to maintain their authority.

4. SLAVISM, or SLAVONIAN NATIONALITY, or the longings of the various Slavonian populations of the empire (Bohemians, Moravians, Croatians, Illyrians,) to free themselves from German rule. John Kollar, of Pesth, a man of poetical and fervid, and, at the same time, of scholarly mind, first propounded the doctrine of Panslavism, or the union of all the 80 millions of Slavonians, (one-fifth of which belonged to Austria,) whether Russians, Bohemians, Servians, or Croatians, into one Slavonian Empire.

As privy-chancellor of state, Metternich acted in all matters for the emperor. A man of pleasing manners, and highly cultivated mind, it was his object to govern despotically, and yet to let the despotism be as little felt as possible. This system of *paternal government* might have succeeded in a small state. In so large an empire, however, the personal manner of the ruler could not penetrate far; and hence it was only by harshness and severity on the part of the resident officials, by arrest of discontented individuals, and by employing military forces collected in one part of the empire to keep down revolt in another, that the various provinces and populations could be held together. The French revolution produced an insurrection of the different nationalities subject to the Austrian sway. The whole strength of that vast, but ill-compacted empire, seemed to collapse in a single day. It was not enough that the German parts of its dominions had constitutional government conceded to them. The Hungarian, Slavonian, and Italian subjects had their separate quarrels with the Austrian government, and seized the opportunity of separate action.

II. The Austro-Hungarian Revolution.

a. The Outbreak and its Consequences.

When the news of the French revolution arrived in Hungary, KOSSUTH carried, in the diet at Pesth, an address to the emperor-king, (March 3d,) demanding a national government, purged from all foreign influence. Metternich prepared to resist this demand by military force. The insurrection of the Viennese, however, having driven Metternich into exile, and compelled the Austrian emperor to grant a constitution to his German subjects, the Hungarians gained the day. The archduke Stephen was named Hungarian palatine, and Kossuth was appointed secretary of the treasury, (March 18th.) The hopes of the German democrats were now fixed upon Vienna, where the people had obtained the mastery, and were supported by Kossuth with the whole strength of Hungary. After consenting to the establishment of a *constituent imperial diet*, the emperor had fled to the Tyrol, and Kossuth, through his partisans, ruled as effectually in Vienna as in Pesth.

b. Panslavism and the beginning of the reaction.

The sixteen millions of Slavonians subject to Austria thought the time at hand for realizing their Panslavic dreams. A congress of deputies, professing to represent all the Slavonian populations of Europe, (with the exception of Russia,) met at Prague, in May, 1848. PALACKY, the historian of Bohemia, was the soul of this movement.

The people of Prague, tired of the oratory of this congress, broke out in insurrection, (June 11th.) The suppression of this insurrection by Prince Windischgrätz, was the first reactionary triumph of the imperial arms, and this was followed by a rising of the southern Slavonians in favor of the emperor.

c. The South-Slavonian reaction.

The Croat chief, Jellachich, who had been made ban (governor) of Croatia by the emperor, put himself at the head of this movement.

Jellachich, at the head of 65,000 Croats and other Slavonians, invaded Hungary, (September 11th,) avowedly as an officer of the emperor intrusted with the task of reducing the Hungarians to obedience. But on the 29th of September, a Hungarian army met the advancing Croats under Jellachich, defeated, it and drove it toward the Austrian frontier. Great was the excitement at Vienna, when it became known that Jellachich was in full retreat toward the city. The excitement was increased when an imperial decree appeared, dissolving the Hungarian diet, placing Hungary under martial law, and appointing Jellachich governor of the country. The Viennese, recognizing in this blow struck at the Hungarians, a blow struck at their own liberties, rose in insurrection.

d. The Revolt of Vienna.

On the 6th of October, 1848, the revolt broke out in Vienna. The emperor, after the march of the imperial troops against the Hungarians had been opposed by the national guard, and the minister of war (Latour) sacrificed to the fury of the populace, a second time quitted his capital, and fled to Olmütz. A revolutionary government was organized, consisting of the democratic leaders of the Viennese diet, assisted by some members of the Frankfort parliament, (among them, Robert Blum.) The military command was intrusted to Bem, a Pole of Galicia. For ten days, Bem maintained the defence against the united armies of Windischgrätz and Jellachich, (80,000 men,) who had laid siege to the city in the name of the emperor. Bem's sole hope of ultimate success, however, was that the Hungarians, in whose behalf they had made the revolution, would come to their relief. They did come, but too late. When the Hungarian army, under Görgey appeared before Vienna, on the 30th of October, 1848, the bombardment of the city was at an end, and Windischgrätz was already entering it. The Viennese were subjected to the usual consequences of an unsuccessful revolt: Blum and others were shot or hanged, and Bem escaped with difficulty. But a revolution now ensued at court, and on December 2d, 1848, the emperor Ferdinand IV. abdicated in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph, the present emperor. (See GENEALOGY, XVI.)

e. The Austro-Hungarian War.

Cause. The refusal of Hungary to acknowledge the abdication of Ferdinand IV. and the accession of Francis Joseph.

Duration. Nine months, (December, 1848–August, 1849.)

Theatre of war. Hungary and Transylvania.

Object of the war. The annihilation of the Hungarian liberties and independence.

Result of the war. Total subjugation of Hungary.

Parties. The Hungarians, against the imperial government, which was assisted by the southern Slavonians and Russians.

Commanders. *Hungarian:* Görgey, Bem, Dembinski, Klapka, Perczel, Damianich, and Guyon. *Imperial:* Windischgrätz, Jellachich, Welden, Haynau. *Russian:* Paskiewitsch and Rüdiger.

Campaign. The task of reducing Hungary was intrusted to Windischgrätz, who soon entered Pesth without opposition, (January 5th, 1849.) But now the tide turned. Battle after battle was fought, and for four months Hungary was the scene of a war far more terrible and gigantic than any that Europe had known since the days of Napoleon. The successes of the Hungarians were such as to astonish the world. By the month of April, the Austrians had been driven from Hungary, and the Hungarians had chosen Kossuth as their governor. Vienna itself was threatened. Austria now accepted the aid of Russia. Toward the close of April, a Russian army, entering Hungary from the north, began to co-operate with fresh Austrian and Croatian armies. Even against this overwhelming force, the Hungarians kept up a brave defence till the 13th of August, 1849. on which day Görgey surrendered to the Russians.

Result. Hungary was now at the mercy of the victors. At first there were rumors that the Russian emperor meant to keep the country, and proclaim its independence of Austria, with one of his own sons as king. The czar, however, resigned Hungary back into the hands of the Austrian emperor, whose agents

(especially Haynau) distinguished themselves by the most horrible acts of cruelty, perpetrated in his name, by way of vengeance.

III. The Lombardian Revolution.

(See under ITALY.)

C. GERMANY.

I. General Causes.

Liberal ideas had been spontaneously making progress in Germany. The French revolution of 1830 had agitated the minor states, and had obliged the governments of the majority of these states to grant constitutions to their subjects. These constitutions were after the model of that of France; but the German princes soon found the means of imitating Louis Philippe, and practically neutralizing the constitutions as much as possible by all kinds of restrictions on the press, and on popular liberty. The consequences of this were a wide-spread discontent.

The French revolution set all Germany in a blaze; in the smaller states the excitement displayed itself in a desire for German unity.

II. The Revolution.

a. The Humiliation of the Sovereigns.

Revolutionary symptoms first appeared on the banks of the Rhine. At Mannheim, the people assembled and demanded the freedom of the press, the arming of the people, and a GERMAN PARLIAMENT. In the smaller states everything was at once conceded. The governments of the middle states (Bavaria, Saxony, and Hanover,) alone opposed any resistance to the people, till Austria and Prussia were likewise observed to be in confusion. Then, all over Germany, the sovereigns began bowing before their subjects, making speeches to them, promising to govern them on new principles, and asking oblivion for the past.

In Berlin, King Frederick William IV. granted not only all demands, but (after a riot, in which 200 people lost their lives) put himself at the head of the people.

An attempt was even made to place the king of Prussia at the head of the German national movement. On the 21st of March, the army had assumed the German cockade in addition to the Prussian, and the king rode through the city decorated with the three German colors, (black, red, and gold.) A proclamation was issued declaring that *Prussia rises into Germany.* These proceedings produced a bad impression in Germany, and were nearly everywhere received with unconcealed scorn.

b. The German Parliament.

The leaders of the opposition in the various German representative assemblies held a meeting at Heidelberg, (March 8th,) and published a proclamation to the German nation, promising them a national representation, and inviting them to attend *a preliminary parliament*, in which a representative system was to be prepared. It was opened in the church of St. Paul, at Frankfort, March 31st, 1848, where it was agreed that a *general constituent assembly* should be held at Frankfort, to which deputies should be sent (one for every 50,000) from every part of Germany. It assembled on the 18th of May, for the purpose of giving Germany a constitution. Various schemes were propounded. The more extreme liberals advocated that of a great federal republic. The prevailing opinion, however, was in favor of a revived German Empire, and the archduke John (uncle of the emperor) was elected imperial vicar. The diet of the confederation held then its last sitting, (July 12th,) and handed over its power to the imperial vicar.

The German parliament, which was now the supreme authority in the empire, wasted its time on abstract and speculative questions, and no results of practical importance followed its deliberations. They elected by a small majority the king of Prussia hereditary emperor, (March 28th, 1849;) a dignity, however, which Frederick William IV. declined to accept. After this election Austria withdrew her representatives from the parliament, which example was soon followed by Prussia and Saxony. That assembly was also reduced, by the voluntary desertion of other members, to little more than 100 persons, who, deeming themselves no longer secure in Frankfort, transferred their sittings to Stuttgardt. Here they deposed the imperial vicar, and appointed a new regency, consisting of five members. But, as they began to call the people to arms, they were dispersed by the Würtemberg government, (June 18th, 1849.)

III. The Reaction.

The *constituent assembly for Prussia*, which was opened at Berlin on the 22d of May, 1848, had expired on the 5th of December, of the same year. Like the Frankfort parliament, it had done nothing but talk. The king, retracting the constitution of 1848, announced that he had a new one in preparation, which was promulgated and sworn to, in February, 1850; since which time the Prussian king has ruled nominally as a constitutional monarch, but really with much of the absolute power which he possessed prior to 1848.

Meanwhile, in the rest of Germany also, matters were gradually resuming their ancient course. The question of the German constitution, however, still remained a cause of disunion. Austria, backed by the influence of Russia, succeeded in re-establishing the federal constitution with the Frankfort diet, as arranged in 1815. The Prussian government now endeavored, in opposition to Austria, to form a new confederation, of which Prussia was to be the presiding power, and which was to consist of all the German states, except Austria. With this view a German parliament was convoked at Erfurt, (March 20th, 1850,) which, however, after a few sittings, indefinitely adjourned. Frederick William IV. made another attempt to form a separate league, by summoning a congress of princes, at Berlin, in May. At the same time, Austria had summoned the diet of the confederation to meet at Frankfort, which was attended by representatives from all the states except Prussia and Oldenburg. Thus, two rival congresses were sitting at the same time: one at Berlin, to establish a new con-

federation under Prussian influence; and one at Frankfort, to maintain the old one, under the supremacy of Austria. The quarrel between Prussia and Austria was brought to an issue by the disturbances in Hesse-Cassel, where the elector openly outraged the constitution by proceeding to levy taxes on his own authority, in consequence of which the people rose in revolt, and drove him from his dominions.

The diet at Frankfort resolved to support the elector against his subjects; while Prussia took up the opposite side, and moved a large military force toward the Hessian frontier. A collision appeared inevitable, when hostilities were averted by Russian interference and a change of the cabinet at Berlin. To put an end to these disputes, conferences were opened at Dresden, (December, 1850.) Prussia was induced to acknowledge the Frankfort diet; and the ancient state of things, after three years of revolution and disturbance, was re-established in the German confederation.

D. ITALY.

I. General Causes.

The arrangements made by the congress of Vienna with respect to Italy, were such as to leave the Italians universally dissatisfied. At length, a formidable secret society was established among them, with a view to combine the disaffected in all the states in one common effort against the native despots and the Austrians. The conspirators called themselves Carbonari. About the year 1831, Carbonarism was superseded by a new form of Italian patriotism, of a more energetic character. It arose in Piedmont, under the auspices of a number of Genoese youths, who organized themselves into a body called YOUNG ITALY. Their leader and founder was MAZZINI, whose view was: that the freedom of Italy, both from domestic and foreign tyranny, could only be attained by a union of all the separate states into one nation — all merging their separate names in the one common name of Italians, and under this name forming a single powerful European nation. But the conspiracy having been prematurely discovered, the Piedmontese government took steps for breaking it up. Many of the chief agents were arrested and put to death; others escaped to Great Britain, (1833.) From that time, no considerable attempt at insurrection was made. The Austrians in northern Italy, and the native dynasties throughout the rest of the peninsula, continued to rule by military force and the terrors of a secret police system.

The accession of Pope Pius IX., (1846,) however, was hailed by the Italians as the dawn of a new day; and immense expectations were formed from the liberal acts of the first year of his pontificate. In the midst of this excitement the news of the French revolution passed through the Italian populations.

II. The Revolution.

a. The Humiliation of the Sovereigns.

Instantly, as in Germany, all the native despotisms fell before the blast of this news. Charles Albert in the Sardinian states, Ferdinand II. in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, the grand-duke Leopold in Tuscany, and the dukes of Modena and Parma, could only keep their thrones by giving or promising constitutions. But, besides thus yielding to the revolutionary force within their own dominions, these sovereigns found themselves obliged to join in a common enterprise for driving the Austrians out of Lombardy and Venice, so as to gratify the long-cherished desire of all the Italians to see their native land entirely liberated from foreign thraldom. It was with hesitation that most of the Italian princes joined in the league against Austria — a power to which they were all indebted. Charles Albert, of Sardinia, alone took up the cause with spirit. He boldly undertook to lead the Italians in a war with Austria.

b. The Austro-Italian War.

Cause. The hatred of the Italians against the Austrian domination.
Duration. Eighteen months, (February, 1848–August, 1849.)
Object of the war. To drive the Austrians out of Italy.
Result of the war. The Austrian domination in Italy seems to be fixed firmer than ever.
Parties. The united Italians against the Austrian empire.
Great commanders. *Austrian:* RADETZKY, (then 82 years old,) Nugent, Clam, Giulay, Archduke Albert. *Italian:* CHARLES ALBERT, (called the Sword of Italy,) Chrzanowski, Pepe.
Decisive battles. *Gained by the Austrians:* Monte Berici, (near Vicenza,) CUSTOZZA, Vallegio, Mostaza, and NOVARA. *Gained by the Italians:* Goito, Rivoli, Somma Campagna.
Results of the battle of Novara. Abdication of Charles Albert in favor of his son, Victor Emanuel, (the present king;) armistice and submission of Sardinia.
Peace. At Milan, (August 6th, 1849.) The principal terms were: payment by Piedmont of the expenses of the war, and evacuation by them of Lombardy, Parma, Piacenza, and Modena, and withdrawal of their fleet from the Adriatic. Everything was replaced on the ancient footing.
Siege of Venice. The Venetians, who had associated themselves with Charles Albert, resolved, notwithstanding his defeat, to continue the war of independence on their own account; and raising their ancient republican standard of St. Mark, they constituted themselves into a republic, under a triumvirate, of whom the most influential member was MANIN. After Lombardy was again subdued, Radetzky proceeded to invest Venice, (summer, 1848.) It was not reduced by the Austrians till August 22d, 1849, partly by bombardment, partly through the effects of famine.

III. The Reaction.

a. The kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

The defeat of Charles Albert was a heavy blow to Italian freedom; and the Italian sovereigns availed themselves of it to begin a reactionary policy within their respective states. Ferdinand II. (King Bomba) set the example.

As early as May, 1848, he had contrived, after a fearful massacre in the streets, to become master of Naples. After the battle of Custozza, (July 24th, 1848,) he openly professed his determination to restore despotism throughout his dominions. The constitution was annulled, the cabinet disbanded, and its members imprisoned or driven into exile.

After Naples had been reduced, Sicily continued in a state of rebellion. In July, 1848, the Sicilians chose Ferdinand, brother of Victor Emanuel, for their king; but that prince declined to accept the proffered crown.

Filangieri, with a Neapolitan army, landed at Messina, and captured that town, after a sanguinary struggle. In the spring of 1849, Filangieri reduced Catania and Syracuse, and on the 23d of April he entered Palermo, thus putting an end to the rebellion.

b. Rome.

In the Roman States, the reaction was brought about by the demagogues. The Pope continued to govern the Romans according to the constitution he had granted them. His principal adviser was Count Rossi, who, having incurred the bitter hatred of the demagogues, was assassinated, (November 15th, 1848.) Upon this the mob attacked the Pope in the Quirinal, and murdered his secretary, Cardinal Palma. The Pope succeeded in escaping, and betook himself to Gaeta. The Roman parliament, having in vain implored him to return, proceeded to establish a provisional government. At length, (February 5th, 1849,) was opened at Rome a general Italian constituent assembly, which began by deposing the Pope as a temporal prince, and proclaiming the Roman republic, (February 8th.) A triumvirate having been chosen to conduct the executive of the republic, MAZZINI became chief triumvir. But soon a reaction commenced. The Austrians began to enter central Italy; while France and Spain also despatched troops to the Pope's aid. A division of 6,000 French troops, under General Oudinot, landed at Civita Vecchia, (April 25th.) After having experienced a signal defeat before the walls of Rome from Garibaldi's volunteers, it began the siege. Oudinot captured Rome, after a two-months' siege, on the 3d of July, 1849. The French remained exclusive masters of the city till April, 1850, when the Pope returned, and re-established his government under their protection.

ADDENDA.

The Olynthian War.

Cause. The endeavor of Olynthus to force into its confederacy the cities of *Acanthus* and *Apollonia*, which, jealous of Olynthian supremacy, and menaced in their independence, applied to Sparta, then in the height of its power, to solicit intervention.

Duration. Three years, (383–379 B. C.)

Theatre of war. The region around Olynthus, a town which stood at the head of the Toronaic gulf, between the peninsulas of Pallene and Sithonia, (north-western part of the Ægæan sea.)

Parties. The Spartan confederacy against the Olythian confederacy.

Object of the war. The dissolution of the Olynthian confederacy.

Result of the war. The Olynthian confederacy is dissolved. Sparta, by crushing the Olynthian confederacy, virtually surrendered the Thracian Greeks to Macedonia. Never again did the opportunity occur of placing Hellenism on a firm, consolidated, and self-supporting basis, round the coast of the Thermaic gulf.

Commanders. Spartan: *Eudamidas, Agesipolis, Polybiades.*

Peace. The Olynthians were reduced to such straits that they were obliged to sue for peace, and, breaking up their own federation, enrolled themselves as sworn members of the Lacedæmonian confederacy, under obligations of fealty to Sparta.

Remark. The expedition of the Spartans to Olynthus led incidentally to an affair of much greater importance. Phœbidas, the brother of Eudamidas, was appointed, in 383 B. C., to collect the troops, which were not in readiness at the time of his brother's departure, and to march toward Olynthus. On his way through Bœotia, he encamped in the vicinity of Thebes, where he was visited by Leontiades, one of the polemarchs, and some other leaders of the Spartan army in Thebes. In order to annihilate the democracy, Leontiades persuaded Phœbidas to take possession of the Cadmea, (the citadel of Thebes,) which Leontiades was willing to surrender into his hands.

Social War in Greece.

Cause. The invasion of the *Ætolians* into *Messenia* (in the Peloponnesus) had led to the total defeat of the *Achæan forces*, who had marched to the assistance of the *Messenians*. The *Achæans* now saw no hope of safety, except through the assistance of Philip V., the king of *Macedonia*, who readily listened to their application, and declared war against the *Ætolians.*

Duration. About three years, (220–217 B. C.)

Theatre of war. The Peloponnesus and central Greece.

Parties. The *Achæans*, assisted by Philip V., king of *Macedon*, against the *Ætolians*, assisted by the *Spartans.*

Object of the war. To put a stop to the predatory excursions of the Ætolians, who for years had carried on a system of organized robbery.

Result of the war. The Ætolian confederacy remains as it was before, the curse of Greece.

Campaign. Philip V. inflicted a severe blow upon the Ætolians, (218 B. C.,) by an unexpected march into the interior of their country, where he surprised their capital, THERMUM.

Cause of peace. The desire of Philip to turn his arms against the Romans, made him conclude peace with the Ætolians.

Remark. The long-discussed alliance between Carthage and Macedonia had been delayed by this social war. It was only after the splendid victory of Hannibal at Trasimenus, (217,) that Demetrius of Pharos found Philip disposed to listen to his proposal to cede to Macedonia his Illyrian possessions—which it was necessary, however, to wrest in the first place from the Romans—and it was only now that the court of Macedonia came to terms with Carthage.

Macedonia undertook to land an invading army on the east coast of Italy, in return for which she received an assurance that the Roman possessions in Epirus should be restored to Macedonia.

The Alexandrian Library.

The Egyptian Ptolemies founded the vast library of Alexandria, which was afterward the emulative labor of rival monarchs.

It was begun by Ptolemy Soter (306–285 B. C.) in the *Museum*, which stood near the royal palace, in the quarter of the city called Brucheium, and was hence called the Brucheium library. When this building had been completely occupied with books to the number of 400,000 volumes, a supplemental library was erected within the Serapeum, or temple of Serapis; and the books there placed gradually increased to the amount of 300,000 volumes; thus making in both libraries a grand total of 700,000 volumes.

The measures adopted by the Ptolemies to bring together this collection were rather curious. They caused all books imported into Egypt by foreigners to be seized and sent to the Museum, where they were transcribed by persons employed for the purpose; upon which *the copies* were delivered to the proprietors, and *the originals* deposited in the library. Ptolemy Euergetes (247–222 B. C.) borrowed of the Athenians the works of Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, caused them to be transcribed in the most elegant manner; retained the originals for the Alexandrian library, and returned to the Athenians the copies which had been made of them, with 15 talents (talent=$1250) for the exchange.

The library continued in all its splendor until Cæsar's Alexandrian war, when the oldest (the Brucheium) portion of the collection was destroyed by order of Cæsar. But the library in the Serapeum still remained, and was augmented by subsequent donations, particularly by that of the Pergamean library, (amounting to 200,000 volumes,) presented by Mark Antony, in 34 B. C., to Cleopatra.

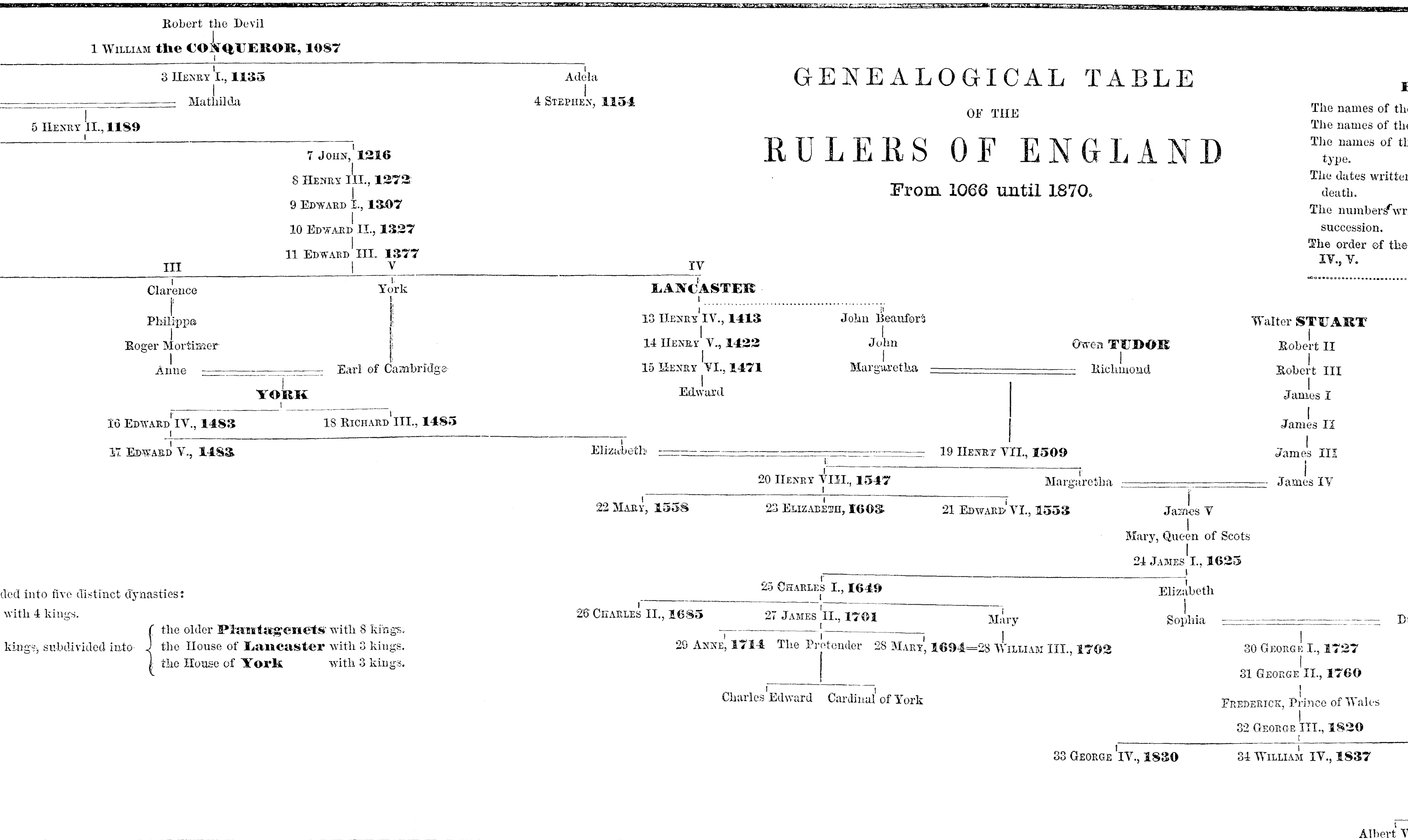
After various revolutions, during which the collection was sometimes plundered and sometimes re-established, it was utterly destroyed by the Saracens, under the orders of the caliph Omar, about 638 A. D. "If," said the caliph, "these writings of the Greeks agree with the Koran, they are useless, and need not be preserved; if they disagree, they are pernicious, and ought to be destroyed."

GENEALOGICAL TABLE

OF THE

RULERS OF ENGLAND

From 1066 until 1870.



E

The names of th
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The names of th
type.
The dates writte
death.
The numbers wr
succession.
The order of the
IV., V.

ded into five distinct dynasties:
with 4 kings.

kings, subdivided into { the older **Plantagenets** with 8 kings.
the House of **Lancaster** with 3 kings.
the House of **York** with 3 kings.

THE SCOTCH SUCCESSION IN 1290.

ʒ David I., **1153**
Prince Henry, **1152**

David, Earl of Huntingdon, **1219**

Margaret, **1222** — Issabella — Ada

Devoigoil — Marjory — *Bruce* — Henry Hastings

John Baliol, **1295** — Marjory ═ The Black Comyn — Bruce, Earl of Carrick — *John Hastings*

ʒ Edward Baliol, **1342** — *The Red Comyn*, **1306** — ʒ The Bruce, **1329**

ʒ David, **1370** — Marjory ═ Walter Stuart

ʒ Robert II., 1390

e printed in small capitals.
they are: *John Baliol*, *The Red Comyn*, *Bruce*, *John Hastings*, *Floris V.*

NCH SUCCESSION IN 1328.

* Philip III., **1285**

Charles of **VALOIS**

Edward I., **1306**

* Charles IV., **1327** — Isabella ═ *Edward II.*, **1328** — * Philip VI., **1350**

Blanche — *Edward III.*, **1377** — * John, **1364**

Philip — *John of Gaunt*, **1399** — * Charles V., **1380**

ORLEANS — *Henry IV.*, **1413** — * Charles VI., **1422**

apitals, except the English

Henry V., **1422** ═ Catharina — * Charles VII., **1462**

* *Henry VI.*, **1471**
King of England and France.

THE CLAIMS TO THE ENGLISH CROWN OF LADY JANE GREY AN

IV

The rulers of England are printed in small capitals.
The rulers of Scotland are marked ʒ

Edward III

LANCASTER, 1399
John **BEAUFORT, 1410**
John, **1444**

Margaretha, **1509** — Edward IV.

Henry VII., **1509** ═ Elizabeth, **1503**

ʒ James IV., **1513** ═ Margaretha, **1539** ═ Douglass, **1557** — Henry VIII — Mary, **1533**

ʒ James V., **1542** — Margaretha, **1578** — E. — M. — E. — Francis, **1563** — Edwa

ʒ Mary Stuart, **1587** ═ Darnley, **1567** — Charles, **1576** — Catharina — Jane Gr

ʒ James I., **1625** — W. Seymour

Arabella Stuart, **1615** ═ William Seymour

1100–1870.

GUELPH IV., 1101

Henry the Black, **1127**

Henry the Proud, **1139**

Henry the Lion, **1195**

William, **1213**

Otto the Child, **1252**

Albert I., **1279**

Albert II., **1318**

Magnus, **1369**

Magnus Torquatus, **1373**

Bernard, **1434**

Frederick, **1478**

Otto, **1471**

Henry, **1532**

Ernst the Confessor, **1546**

BRUNSWICK

Henry, **1598**

August, **1666**

Ferdinand Albert I., **1687**

Ferdinand Albert II., **1735**

Charles, **1780**

Charles William, **1806**

Frederick William, **1815**

Charles — **declared incapable of ruling in 1830**

William

HANOVER

William, **1592**

George, **1641**

Ernst August, **1698**

1 **George I., 1727**

2 **George II., 1760**

Frederick, Prince of Wales, **1751**

3 **George III., 1820**

4 **George IV., 1830**

5 **William IV., 1837**

Edward, Duke of Kent, **1820** — **Victoria**

Ernst August, **1851** — George V **deposed 1866**

Adolf Frederick, **1850**

Sovereigns of Great Britain in **this type.**

Those who ruled both over Great Britain and Hanover are marked 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.

CAL SURVEY

OUSE OF

E T,

BRANCHES.

870.

marked *
e marked ††
gs are marked 1–10.
n type.
n families are printed in bold-faced capitals.

* Hugh **CAPET, 996**

* Robert, **1033**

* Henry I., **1060** — Robert, Duke of **BURGU**

* Philip I., **1108** — **VERMANDOIS** **Extinct in the 6th gener.** — Henry, **1066**

* Lewis VI., **1137** — Eudes — **The Older Line of Burgundy Extinct in 1361**

* Lewis VII., **1180** — **DREUX** **Become Dukes of Bretagne Extinct in 1514**

* Philip Augustus, **1223**

* Lewis VIII., **1226**

* Lewis IX., **1270** — Robert of **ARTOIS** — **ANJOU** **See Genealogy,** VIII — **4** Sancho II.

ilip III., **1285** — Robert of Clermont — Robert II

Charles of **VALOIS** — Lewis of **BOURBON** — Philip — Mahaud

les IV., **1327** — * Philip VI., **1350** — James — Robert III — Joan

* John, **1364** — John — John — Joan — Margareta — **9** Ferdinand

Valois — **Anjou** — **Burgundy** — Lewis — Philip — **For the** **Bast**

See Genealogy, VIII — John — Charles

Francis — **Montpensier** **Extinct in 1693**

Charles

Anton of Navarre — **Condé** **See Genealogy,** VII

* Henry IV., **1610**

* Lewis XIII., **1643** — Gaston of **Orleans**

* Lewis XIV., **1715**

Lewis the Dauphin

gundy — †† Philip V., **1746**

774 — †† Lewis I., **1724** — †† Ferdinand VI., **1759** — †† Charles III., **1788** — Philip

n — †† Charles IV., **1819** — Ferdinand I — Ferdinan

1824 — * Charles X., **1836** — †† Ferdinand VII., **1833** — Don Carlos — Francis I — Lewis

Duke of Berry — †† Isabella II — Louisa — John — Ferdinand II — Charles L

Duke of Bordeaux — Alfonso — Ferdinand *Duke of Montpensier* — Charles — Francis II — Ferdinan

E — **SPAIN** — **NAPLES** — **LUCC**

GENEALOGICAL TABLE

OF THE

RULERS OF FRANCE,

From 987 until 1870.

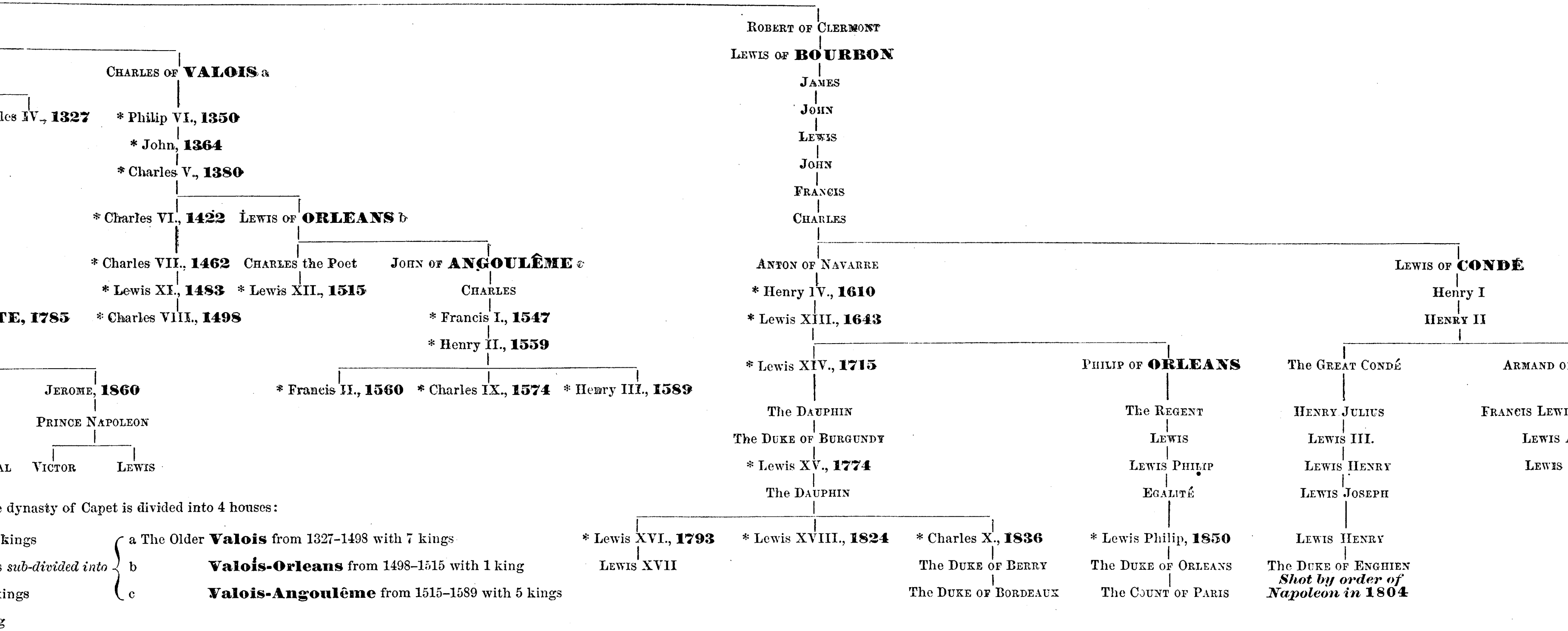
EXPLANATION.

The names of the kings are marked *

The names of the houses **in this type.**

The names of the connecting links IN THIS TYPE.

The dates written after the names indicate the year of their death.



GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE DESCENDANTS OF LEWIS VIII., KING OF FRANCE.

* PHILIP AUGUSTUS, 1223

* LEWIS VIII., 1226

* Lewis IX., 1270

Robert of Clermont, 1317

Charles of *VALOIS* — Lewis of ***BOURBON,*** 1341

* Philip VI., 1350

* John, 1364

a Lewis of ANJOU, 1384 — Philip of BURGUNDY, 1404

b Lewis II., 1417 — John the Fearless, 1419

[Le]wis III., 1434 — *d* The good René, 1480 — Charles of MAINE, 1472 — Philip the Good, 1467

e John 1471 — Jolande — Margareta 1482 — *f* Charles, 1481 declares Louis XI. his heir — Charles the Bold 1477

Mary

Emp. Rudolf of Habsburg, 1291

Emperor Albert I., 1308

Albert of Habsburg, 1358

Leopold, 1386 — Albert, 1395

Ernst, 1424 — Albert, 1405

Emp. Frederick III., 1493 — † Emp. Albert II., 1439 = † Elizabeth, 1447

Emp. Maximilian, 1519 — Casimir IV., of Poland, 1492 = † Elisabeth, 1505 — † Ladislaus, 1457

Philip I., 1506 — † Ladislaus, 1516 — Polish Kings

Emp. Charles V., 1558 — Emp. Ferdinand I., 1564 = Anna, 1547 — † Lewis II., 1526

Archduke of Austria — heiress of Bohemia and Hungary

John of BOHEMIA, 1346

Emp. Charles IV., 1378

Emp. Sigismund, 1437 = † Maria heiress of Hungary — Hedwig heiress of Poland

11 Char[les]

12 Ch[arles]

† Charles Martel, 1301 — 13 [...]

† Charles Robert, 1342 — Cha[...]

† Lewis the Great, 1382 — Andrew, 1345 = [...] — 1[...]

[...] marked *

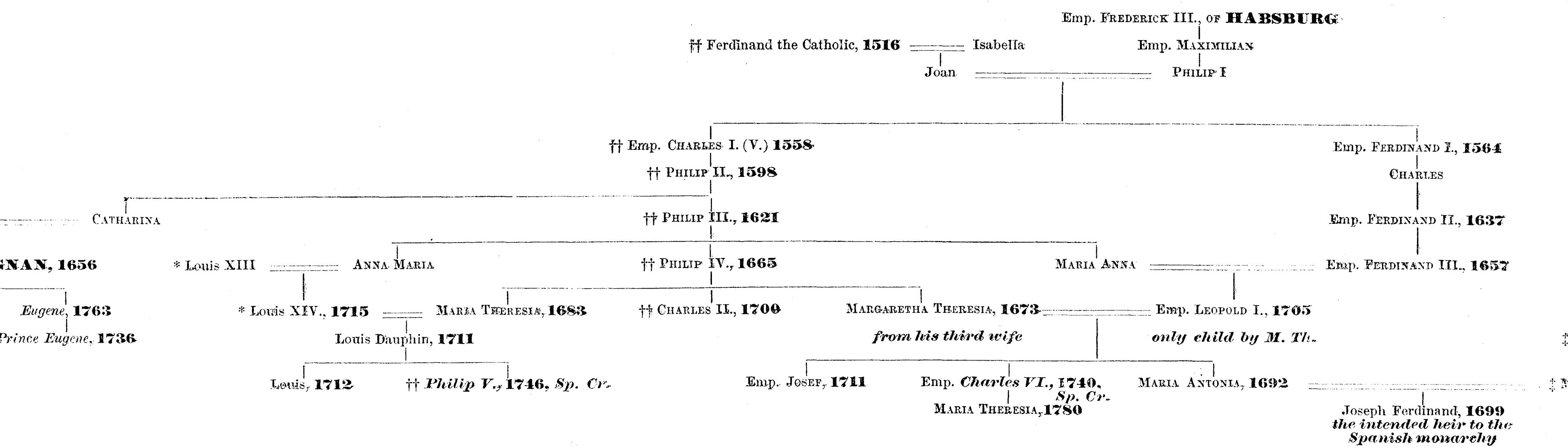
[...]re marked †

No. ***11—17*** are the Neapolitan kings from the older house of Anjou.
a—f are the titular kings of Naples from the younger house of Anjou.

This table shows, 1st, the descent of Charles V. (through his grandmother) from [...]
2d. How Hungary became united with Bohemia, and both with [...]

THE SPANISH AND AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION IN 1700 AND 1740;

SHOWING ALSO THE DESCENT OF THE PRESENT RULERS OF ITALY AND BAVARIA.



ing of Sardinia

of Italy

The descendants of Frederick of **Habsburg** in the male line are printed in small capitals.
The descendants of Amadeus VII., first Duke of Savoy, are printed in italics.
The descendants of Ernest of **Wittelsbach** are printed in common type.

The pretenders to the Spanish crown in 1700 were: They are printed in bold-faced italics.
- Victor Amadeus II., Duke of Savoy.
- Philip of Bourbon, Duke of Anjou, who got it.
- Charles of Habsburg, Archduke of Austria, afterward Emp. Charles VI.

GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE RULERS OF GERMANY FROM 800 UNTIL 1254.

I CHARLEMAGNE, 814

II Lewis the Pious, **840**

55

IV Lewis the German, **876**

V Charles the Bald, **877**

Lewis, **882**

VI Charles the Fat, **888**

Hedwig = Otto **The SAXON**

Conrad **The FRANCONIAN** or **SALIAN**

10 Henry I., **936**

9 Conrad I., **918**

Werner

XI Otto the Great, **973**

Henry

Conrad = Luitgarde

XII Otto II., **983**

Henry

Otto

XIII Otto III., **1002**

XIV Henry II., **1024**

Henry

XV Conrad II., **1039**

XVI Henry III., **1056**

XVII Henry IV., **1106**

XVIII Henry V., **1125**

Agnes = Frederick of **HOHENSTAUFEN** or

XIX Lothar the Saxon, **1137**

Henry the Black

Gertrude = Henry the Proud

Judith = Frederick

20 Conrad III., **1152**

Henry the Lion
The Great Guelph, the lineal ancestor
of Queen Victoria.

XXI Frederick Barbarossa, **1190**

XXII Henry VI., **1197**

23 Philip, **1208**

XXIV Frederick II., **1250**

25 Conrad IV., **1254**

Conradin

rmany during this epoch are divided into four distinct dynasties:

OVINGIAN dynasty from 800– 911 with 8 rulers.
N dynasty from 918–1024 with 5 rulers.
C dynasty from 1024–1125 with 4 rulers.
IAN dynasty from 1137–1254 with 6 rulers.

EXPLANATION.

ulers are printed in small capitals.
ynasties are printed in bold-faced capitals.
onnecting links are printed in common type.
fter the names indicate the year of their death.
en before the names indicate the succession.
narked by the Roman notation.

ALOGICAL TABLE OF THE EMPERORS OF GERMANY FROM 1272 UNTIL 1806.

Wenceslaus of ***BOHEMIA***
27 Ottocar, 1278
Wenceslaus IV
Elizabeth
78
John Henry
XXXV Sigismund, 1437
35 Jobst of Moravia, 1411
Elizabeth

27 Rudolf of ***HABSBURG***
29 Albert I., 1308
31 Frederick, 1330
Albert II
Albert III
Leopold
Albert IV
Ernst
36 Albert II., 1439
XXXVII Frederick III., 1493
38 Maximilian I., 1519
Philip
XXXIX Charles V., 1558
See Spanish kings
40 Ferdinand I., 1564
41 Maximilian II., 1576
Charles of Styria
42 Rudolf II., 1612
43 Matthias, 1619
44 Ferdinand II., 1637
45 Ferdinand III., 1657
46 Leopold I., 1705
Theresa Sobieski
Emanuel of ***BAVARIA*** — Maria
47 Josef I., 1711
48 Charles VI., 1740
Cha
49 Charles VII., 1745
Maria Amalia
Maria Theresia
51 Josef II., 1790
‖ Ferdinand IV
abdicated 1848

EXPLANATION.

The names of the rulers are printed in small capitals.
The names of the dynasties are printed in bold-faced italic ca
The names of the connecting links are printed in common ty
The dates written after the names indicate the year of their d
The numbers written before the names indicate the succession
The emperors (actually crowned) are marked by Roman nota

land.
ile.

vartzburg.

ch are divided into three dynasties, (besides the inter-

8–1437 with 5 rulers.
8–1740 with 16 rulers.
5–1806 with 4 rulers.
hen we have Emperors of Austria marked ‖

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF HABSBURG.

XII

1218–1740.

Emp. RUDOLF I., 1291
Emp. ALBERT I., 1308
ALBERT II., 1358
LEOPOLD, 1386
ERNST, 1424
Emp. FREDERICK III., 1493
Emp. MAXIMILIAN I., 1519
PHILIP I., 1506

The Spanish Habsburgs

†† Emp. Charles V., (I) 1558
†† Philip II., 1598
†† Philip III., 1621
†† Philip IV., 1665
†† Charles II., 1700
Extinct

The Austrian Habsburgs

Emp. Ferdinand I., 1564

- Emp. Maximilian II., 1576
  - Emp. Rudolf II., 1612
  - Emp. Matthias, 1619
- Charles of Styria
  - Emp. Ferdinand II., 1637
    - Emp. Ferdinand III., 1657
      - Emp. Leopold I., 1705
        - Emp. Josef I., 1711
        - Emp. Charles VI., 1740
          Extinct

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF HOHENZOLLERN, 1400—1870.

EXPLANATION.

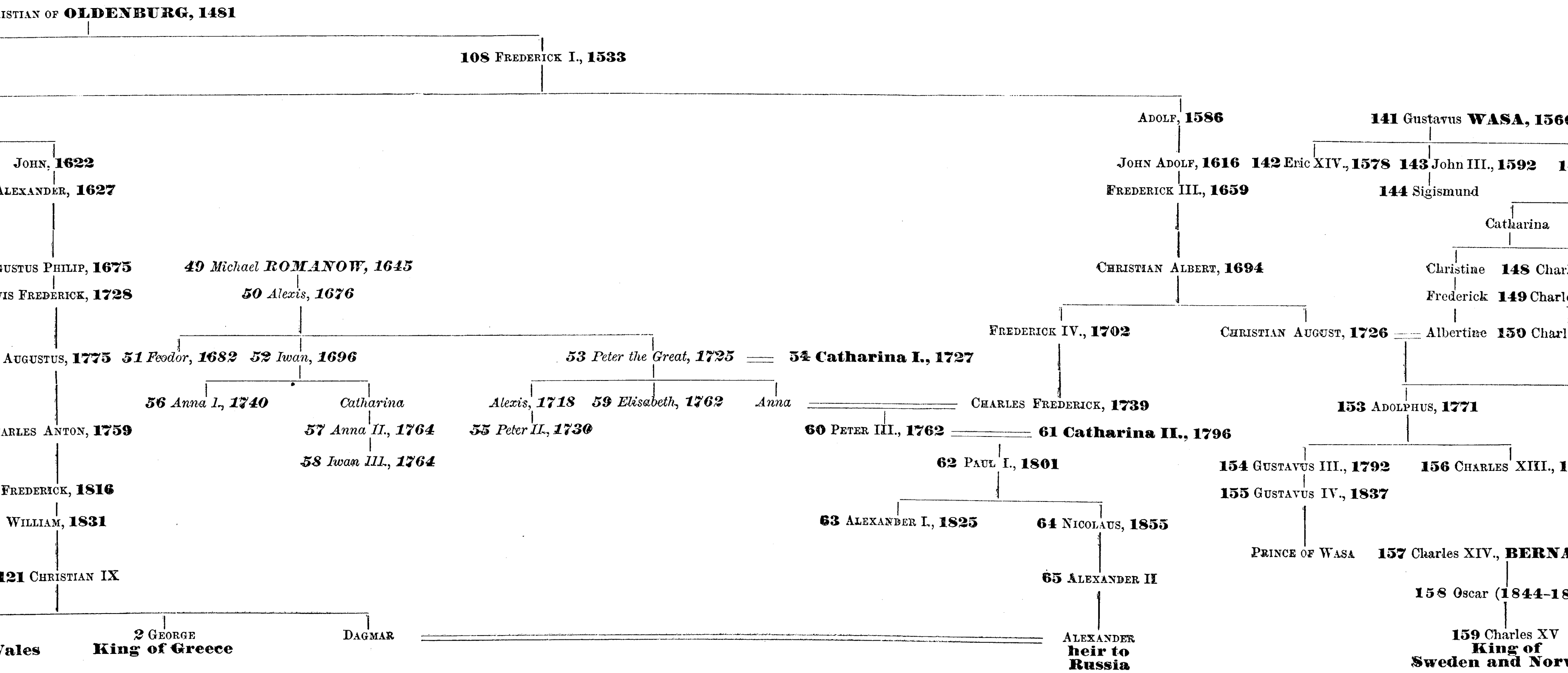
denburg are printed in small capitals.
sia are printed in capitals.
Brandenburg and Prussia are marked with a number.
vith an Arabic figure.
Roman figure.

FREDERICK I., ***1440***
ALBERT ACHILLES, ***1486***
JOHN CICERO, ***1499*** — FREDERIC
JOACHIM I., ***1535*** — ALBER
JOACHIM II., ***1571*** — ALBERT FRE
JOHN GEORGE, ***1598***
JOACHIM FREDERICK, ***1608***
1 JOHN SIGISMUND, ***1619***
2 GEORGE WILLIAM, ***1640***

WILLIAM THE SILENT
MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS — FREDERICK IV = LOUISA JULIANA — FREDERICK HENRY
KING JAMES I
ELIZABETH = FREDERICK V., OR THE WINTERKING
SOPHIA = ERNEST AUGUST — LOUISA OF ORANGE = 3 FREDERICK WILLIAM, THE GREAT ELECTOR, ***1688***
GEORGE I — SOPHIA CHARLOTTE = IV FREDERICK I., ***1713***
SOPHIA DOROTHEA = V FREDERICK WILLIAM I., ***1740***
VI FREDERICK THE GREAT, ***1786*** — AUGUST WILLIAM, ***1758***
VII FREDERICK WILLIAM II., ***1797***
VIII FREDERICK WILLIAM III., ***1840***
IX FREDERICK WILLIAM IV., ***1861*** — X KING WILLIAM
THE CROWN PRINCE FREDERICK WILLIAM
FREDERICK WILLIAM, ***b. 1859***

s also the relations of Frederick
e kings of Great Britain and the

GENEALOGY OF THE HOUSE OF OLDENBURG, 1470—1870.



NATION.

5 thrones of Europe, are printed in small capitals.
by marriage in the house of **Oldenburg,** are printed in italic.
marriage in the house of **Oldenburg,** are printed in common type.

ath.
-121
- 65
-159—Charles XIV., **Bernadotte,** was a French general, who in 1810 was adopted by the childless Charles XIII.

GENEALOGY OF THE RULERS OF SPAIN, SINCE THE ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF TRASTAMARA IN 1368.

- HENRY II., OF ***TRASTAMARA, 1379***
  - JOHN I., OF CASTILE, ***1390***
    - HENRY III., OF CASTILE, ***1406***
      - JOHN II., OF CASTILE, ***1454***
        - HENRY IV., ***1474***
        - ISABELLA ═ FERDINAND THE CATHOLIC, ***1516***
          - CRAZY JOAN ═ PHILIP I., ***1506*** (son of MAXIMILIAN OF ***HABSBURG***)
            - †† CHARLES I., (V) ***1558***
              - †† PHILIP II., ***1598***
                - †† PHILIP III., ***1621***
                  - †† PHILIP IV., ***1665***
                    - †† CHARLES II., ***1700***
                    - MARIA Theresia ═ Louis XIV., of ***BOURBON***
                      - Louis, Dauphin
                        - †† PHILIP V., ***1746***
                          - †† LOUIS I., ***1724***
                          - †† FERDINAND VI., ***1759***
                          - †† CHARLES III., ***1788***
                            - †† CHARLES IV., ***1819***
                              - †† FERDINAND VII., ***1833***
                                - †† ISABELLA II ***abdicated 1869***
    - FERDINAND I., OF ARRAGON, ***1416***
      - JOHN II., OF ARRAGON, ***1479***
        - FERDINAND THE CATHOLIC, ***1516***

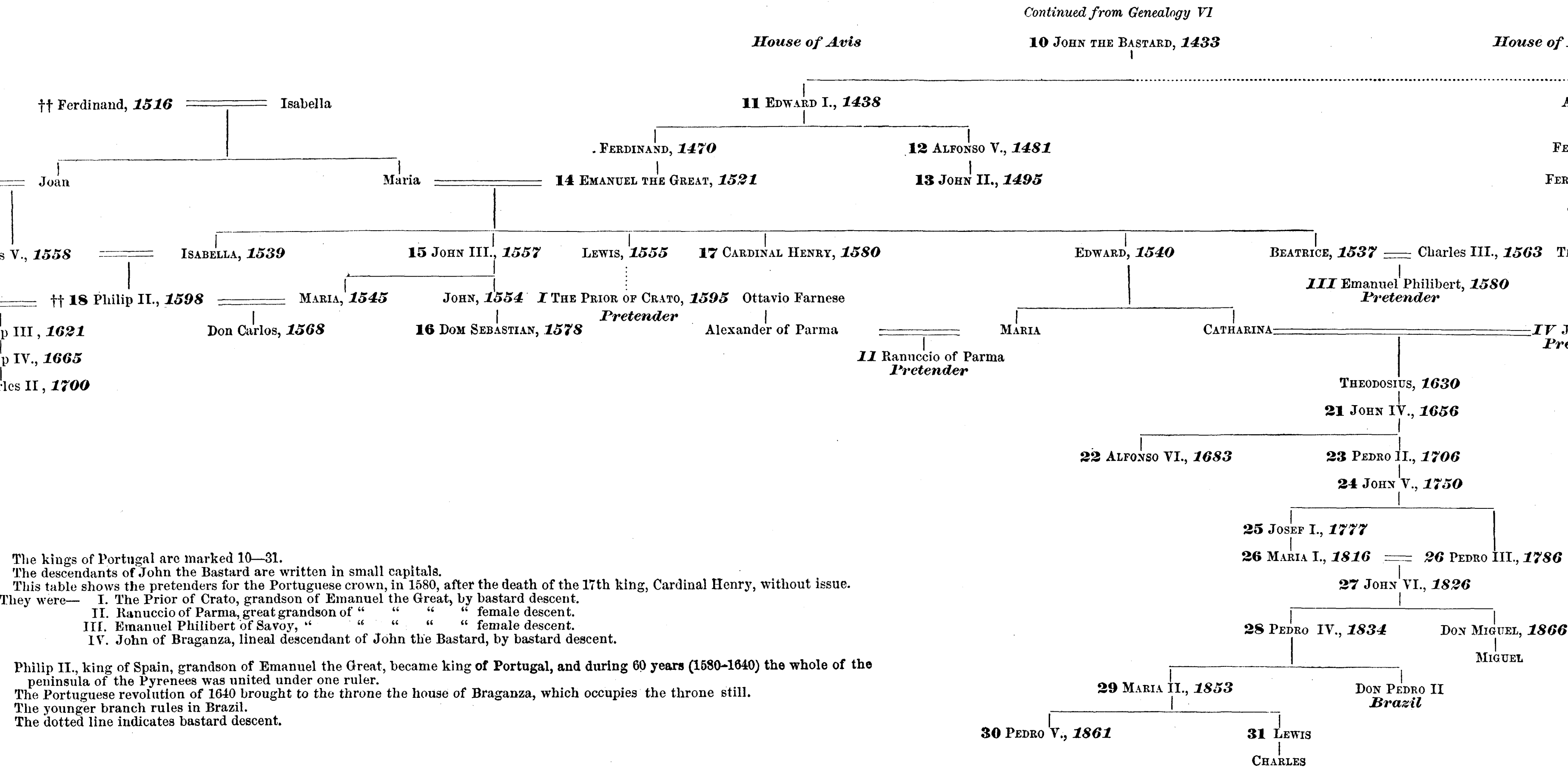
The Kings of Spain during this period are divided into three dynasties:

I. The ***TRASTAMARA*** dynasty from 1368–1516 with 5 rulers.
II. The ***HABSBURG*** dynasty from 1516–1700 with 5 rulers.
III. The ***BOURBON*** dynasty from 1700–1869 with 7 rulers.

EXPLANATION.

The names of the kings of Arragon or Spain are printed in small capitals.
The names of the dynasties are printed in bold-faced italic capitals.
The names of the connecting links are printed in common type.
The dates written after the names indicate the year of their death.

THE KINGS OF PORTUGAL FROM 1384—1870.



The kings of Portugal are marked 10—31.
The descendants of John the Bastard are written in small capitals.
This table shows the pretenders for the Portuguese crown, in 1580, after the death of the 17th king, Cardinal Henry, without issue.
They were— I. The Prior of Crato, grandson of Emanuel the Great, by bastard descent.
II. Ranuccio of Parma, great grandson of " " " " female descent.
III. Emanuel Philibert of Savoy, " " " " female descent.
IV. John of Braganza, lineal descendant of John the Bastard, by bastard descent.

Philip II., king of Spain, grandson of Emanuel the Great, became king of Portugal, and during 60 years (1580-1640) the whole of the peninsula of the Pyrenees was united under one ruler.
The Portuguese revolution of 1640 brought to the throne the house of Braganza, which occupies the throne still.
The younger branch rules in Brazil.
The dotted line indicates bastard descent.